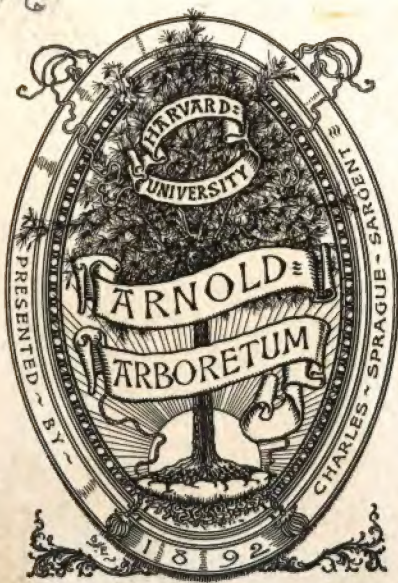




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SKETCHES,
CIVIL AND MILITARY,
OF THE
ISLAND OF JAVA
AND
ITS IMMEDIATE DEPENDENCIES:
COMPRISING
INTERESTING DETAILS
OF
Batavia,
AND AUTHENTIC PARTICULARS
OF
THE CELEBRATED POISON-TREE.

Illustrated with a MAP of JAVA and PLAN of BATAVIA, from
actual Survey.

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR J. J. STOCKDALE, 41, PALL-MALL.
1811.

Printed by S. GOSNELL, Little Queen Street, London.

TO
JAMES AMOS, ESQ.

ST. HELEN'S PLACE.

MY DEAR SIR,

I HOPE I shall neither offend you by having prefixed your name to the following pages, nor by stating the motives, beyond those of a private and personal nature, which influenced my selection.

The disposition which you evinced, at an unusually early period of life, to render yourself extensively useful to society, and in which disposition you so strenuously persevere, would, of itself justify my choice, and, I hope, be sufficient ground to induce your acceptance of this public testimony, from a consciousness that, not being unwor-

thily offered, on the one part, neither will its reception be derogatory on the other. The long connexion of your respected family with the East Indies, and your own well-known extensive concerns with that rich portion of the globe, have also combined to direct you to acquaint yourself with details which give you more than an individual interest in what relates to it.

You have already availed yourself of many opportunities to display your zeal in promoting every useful political and commercial knowledge; and the advancement of commerce and of literature, as best calculated to promote the general good, has frequently been seen to be near to your heart.

Although it may seem presumptuous, in such an individual as myself, to attempt to confirm you in the truly beneficial and laudable sentiments you have adopted on, I doubt not, the most mature and studied conviction

DEDICATION.

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of their utility, yet the vanity will, I trust, be venial, which impels me to hope that even this inconsiderable meed of applause may prove an incitement to your progress towards giving them an universal expansion.

To you, Sir, pre-eminent in the commerce of a country "WHOSE MERCHANTS ARE PRINCES," I now presume to dedicate these hasty "Sketches," and have the honour to subscribe myself, with most respectful esteem,

My dear Sir,

Your sincere, though very humble friend:

JOHN JOSEPH STOCKDALE.

London,
9th October, 1811.

PREFACE.

THE following work owes its origin to the expedition, under that brave and experienced soldier Sir Samuel Auchmuty *, against the last settlement remaining in the hands of an European power hostile to Great Britain. The subject, in itself interesting, is rendered much more so by the probability of the many new sources of enterprise, which will now be opened to the view of that liberal, extensive, and spirited commerce, which has so highly contributed to enable this kingdom to present itself an insurmountable barrier to the atrocious schemes of that enemy of the human race, Napoleon Buonaparte.

* A biographical memoir and portrait of this gentleman is contained in "Notes on the Vice-Royalty of La Plata," &c. which also includes an account of his military operations in South America.

The portion comprised in the first three Books, is selected from the Voyages of John Splinter Stavortinus, rear-admiral in the service of the States General; into which is incorporated the substance of the notes of his well-informed English translator, Mr. Wilcocke, with occasional reference to the early labours of the celebrated Valentyn, Sir George Staunton's Account of the Embassy to China, &c. &c.

Although the plan of comprising each separate account in one Book subjects the reader to some repetition; yet, as it is calculated to do more justice to the respective travellers, the editor hopes it will not be imputed to him as a fault,

The remaining part of the work acquires much value, as the actual observation of an intelligent traveller, C. F. Tombe*, an officer of engineers, and general in the French service, whose information is most recent, and in a great measure entirely new.

From the same source is derived the first actual survey of the island of Java and its im-

* Voyage aux Indes Orientales, edited by Sonnini,

mediate dependencies, which has been made public in this country, or indeed in Europe, and the plan of the line of defence of Batavia ; with the addition of the city, to the plan, and some necessary details to the interior of the map, principally from Valentyn's book ; for the loan of which, and the ready access afforded to the invaluable stores contained in the museum and library of the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. the editor must, in common with every votary of literature and science, acknowledge his warmest obligations.

The authorities for the other additions are in every case duly quoted. The particulars of the celebrated poison-tree will, he cannot doubt, be considered highly important.

In a space of time, perhaps unprecedentedly short, the editor has translated, selected, and compiled, the subsequent " Sketches," and, to avow " the head and front of his offending," he has been guilty of *making a book*, which he ventures to hope will be found to contain amusement, interest, and information. The effort, at

any rate, is not very ambitious; and, although it cannot entitle him to literary reputation, he trusts that its avowed production on the spur of the moment, will shelter him from the severity of that criticism, which has often shown itself indulgent to his lowly endeavours. He has little, indeed, to apprehend from the huge Leviathan of criticism, The Edinburgh Review *, which, singular as it may appear, has studiously avoided, except in one instance †, noticing any works of which he is the publisher, although some of them are the productions of the first characters of the time :—personal offence he can scarcely have given to these mighty arbiters of public taste, not having individual knowledge of any one of them.

* It would be more consistent with that grammatical accuracy on which these critics occasionally love to descant, to substitute the word Essayist for that of Review; but, even waving this objection, how can the general title of Review be fairly assumed by a work which does not notice, foreign literature included, in the course of its whole yearly series, as many English books as issue from the London press alone in one quarter of the time?

† Mr. Petrie's Statement of Facts relative to the Disturbances in India.

Whatever may be the fate of the present performance, he feels confident that, as rather an uncommon exertion of industry in his own calling, it will attach no blemish to his humble name.

No. 41, Pall Mall.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE BINDER.

Map of Java, from actual Survey - - - to face the Title.

Plan of Batavia, and its Line of Defence, from
the Antigol to the Ancka River - - - Page 291.

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ON
THE ISLAND OF JAVA.

1768—1771.

B O O K I.

CHAPTER I.

Situation of Java.—Straits of Sunda.—Prince's Island.—Dwars in den Weg.—Bay of Anjer.—Claim of the Dutch East India Company to the Sovereignty of the Straits of Sunda.—Bay of Bantam.—Road of Batavia.—Kingdom of Bantam—tributary to the Company.—Speech on the Appointment of a Successor to the Throne.—Empire of Jaccatra.—Cheribon.—The Soesoehoenam, or Emperor of Java.—The Sultan.—Principality of Madura.—Political Conduct of the Company towards the native Princes.

THE island of Java, which is one of the largest of those constituting the great Oriental Archipelago, is situated between 6° and 9° south latitude, and extends from 120° to 131° east longi-

tude from Teneriffe, being one hundred and sixty-five Dutch miles in length. It lies nearly in the direction of east and west; to the south and west its shores are washed by the southern Indian Ocean; to the north-west lies the island of Sumatra; to the north, Borneo; to the north-east, Celebes; and to the east, that of Bali: from which last it is separated by a narrow passage, called the Straits of Bali.

The arm of the sea which runs between Java and Sumatra, is known by the appellation of the Straits of Sunda. The length of this channel is, on the Sumatra side, taken from the Flat Point, to Varkens, or Hog Point, fifteen German miles; and, on the Java side, from the first point, or Java Head, to the point of Bantam, full twenty. In the mouth of the strait lies Prince's Island, about a league and a half from the coast of Java, and full six leagues from Sumatra.

Prince's Island is low, and only about four leagues in circumference. It has, however, two hills, one at its east end, and the other a little more to the south, which make it visible at a moderate distance, especially the hill which lies at the east end, and which is accordingly, by navigators, called the High Hill; the English call it the Pike. At its s. w. side is a stone reef, which, according to the charts, extends a league

and a half out to sea, and is dangerous for ships going through the passage between this island and Java. The island is covered with trees, and affords an agreeable prospect to the passing seamen: it is inhabited by Javanese, who subsist by fishing.

By the situation of Prince's Island, at the entrance of the Straits of Sunda, are formed two passages; the one, running between Prince's Island and Java, has been called the Behouden, or Secured Passage, and is made use of, for the most part, by those ships which have to pass the Straits during the south-east monsoon, in order that, sailing close in with the shore of Java, they may soon get within anchoring-depth, and not be in danger of being driven out to sea again, by the currents, which at that time of the year set strongly out of the straits to the westward.

The other passage, which is called by seamen Het Groote Gat, or the Great Channel, sometimes serves also as an entrance to the straits during the south-east monsoon; but it is with the greatest difficulty, and after a continued struggling with the south-easterly winds, and the currents, that this can be effected; and not unfrequently five or six weeks are spent in working up a distance; which, in the west monsoon, is often sailed over in twice as many hours.

Notwithstanding the difficulty of entering the straits on this side, when these contrary winds and currents are in force, almost all the ships which fall to leeward, upon the west coast of Sumatra, as well as those which come from the west of India, are obliged to pass through this channel, as it is scarcely possible to reach the windward shore of Java, in the teeth of the south-east monsoon; and they therefore cannot generally avail themselves of the other passage.

The entrance of the straits, on this side, affords an uncommonly pleasing prospect, near the Sumatran shore. First, the Flat Point, which is low, and covered with trees, and behind it the majestic mountains of Sumatra, rising with a gradual ascent to the clouds; a little more forward, the Keizers, or Emperor's Island, lifts its high and spiry summit; farther on, the islands Kraketau, Slybzee, and Pulo Bicie, or the Iron Island, show their mountains covered with evergreens. The opposite coast of Java is not inferior to this, and improves continually in appearance, affording at the same time good anchorage, which is not to be met with on the Sumatra side. The numerous groves of coconut-palms, and the rice-fields in the back-ground, give the most pleasing ideas of the fertility of its soil.

Twelve or thirteen leagues from Prince's Island,

in the most narrow part of the strait, and opposite to Varkens, or Hog Point of Sumatra, lies an island, which, on account of its situation, exactly in the middle of the channel, has, with great propriety, obtained the name of Dwars in den Weg, Thwart the Way, or Middle Isle. It is low, and of little extent, with some small reefs, which stretch out from it here and there. Like all the islands in these seas, it is covered with wood, and is believed to be uninhabited.

A strong current always runs through the passages on either side this island, setting, with the prevailing easterly or westerly winds, either to the north-east or to the south-west, although it sometimes happens, that the current runs contrary to the direction of the wind, for a short time. Between Dwars in den Weg and the coast of Java, and farther on to the point of Bantam, there appears to be a settled current, independently of the wind.

Ships passing out through the Straits of Sunda, often anchor in the bay of Anjer, in order to take in their last supply of fresh water, from a rivulet which runs from the mountains into the sea, at this place, close to a little grove of coconut-trees. There is likewise a Javanese village, which is under the jurisdiction of the king of Bantam, and which has erroneously been reckoned, by some travellers, among the large cities

of Java, though it has nothing which can be construed into a town.

Not far from this is an islet or rock, entirely overgrown with brushwood; it is called the Brabandsch-boedje; and a little farther to the north, a similar one, called the Toppers-boedje * : this last is steep and bold, having fifty fathom depth close to it.

The Dutch East India Company claim an absolute sovereignty over the Straits of Sunda, and this is acknowledged by all the other powers. The Company require the salute, and have the right of interdicting this passage to all other nations, though they prudently do not enforce such right. The right is maintained as proceeding from the circumstance, that the land on both sides of the straits is tributary to the Company; viz. the kingdom of Bantam on the Java shore, and on the other side the land of Lampon, with that which lies farther westward, being conquered provinces belonging to Bantam. There is a resolution, on this subject, of the council of India, and articles are included in the secret orders which are given to the Company's ships bound to the west of India, respecting the salute to be required of the ships of other nations; but

* They are called the Cap and Button by English navigators.

which order is not to be opened, unless they chance to meet with such.

From Anjer to the point of Bantam, the country appears, in general, with high mountains inland, and a foreland more level. From this point, which is the northernmost extremity of Java, the land declines to the south-east, and makes a deep bay; and in the farthest part of the bight is situated the city of Bantam.

From the point of Pontang, which forms the eastern extremity of the bay of Bantam, as that just mentioned does the western, the land is every where very low; yet there are high mountains inland, among which the Blue Mountain towers above the rest. Although this mountain lies at a great distance, towards the south side of the island, and south-east from Batavia, yet it is seen before Bantam. It was formerly, as is related, a volcano; but nothing of this kind is at present perceivable.

The navigation from this place to the road of Batavia affords the most agreeable prospects, by the numerous small islands, covered with perpetual verdure, and which are strewed, as it were, along the sea. The anchoring-ground is every where very good; but there are many rocks, from ten to eighteen feet under water, and which sometimes occasion much damage to the vessels which do not carefully avoid them. The

Batavian government, however, have caused buoys to be placed upon them, moored by heavy anchors; and upon some of them beacons are erected; but when these are washed away by the currents, the navigator must avoid the rocks by taking the bearings of the several islands.

The road of Batavia is justly esteemed one of the best in the world, as well with regard to the anchoring-ground, which consists of a soft clay, as to the safety it affords the ships which anchor in it, and to the number which it can contain. Although the road is open from the N.W. to E.N.E. and east, yet ships lie as secure and quiet as if they were landlocked, on account of the numerous islands which lie on that side, and break the force of the waves. Ships are never obliged to moor stem and stern here; and the current which runs within the islands is not strong, but without them it is very violent.

In the road, nearest to the town, lies a guard-ship, commonly called the admiral-ship, with an ensign at the top, from which, both in the day and in the night, such signals are made to the other ships in the road, as the commanding officer thinks requisite. For several years past it has been regulated, that one of the captains of the ships in the road should keep guard on board this ship, in order that, in case of accident, by fire or otherwise, some one may be

always at hand, to give the necessary directions, as the other captains of the vessels generally pass the night in the city. On such occasions a signal is made from the admiral-ship, to give information, in order that the necessary assistance be immediately sent from the shore.

Before saying any thing of Batavia, it will not be improper to relate how far the power of the East India Company extends over the whole island of Java, which is divided into four empires, or kingdoms, either wholly or in part subject to the dominion of the Company.

The first, to begin from the west, is the kingdom of Bantam; this is governed by its own kings, with full power of life and death over their subjects; yet they are tributary to the Company, paying a yearly acknowledgment of a hundred *bhars* of pepper, or 37,500 pounds weight; besides which, a strict engagement is entered into by the king, not to sell either pepper, or any produce of his country, to other nations. It must all be delivered to the Company, for a certain stipulated price; and this does not solely regard the pepper produced in his dominions in Java, but likewise all which is grown in his other territories, his conquered provinces, situated in the great island of Borneo, and in Sumatra, which likewise yield much pepper; and the Company have accordingly residencies

established, in the first, at Banjermassing, and in the last, at Lampon Toulabouwa, which serve, in the same way as Fort Speelwyk at Bantam, to enforce the fulfilment of the treaties, and to prevent a contraband trade.

The king of Bantam is also deprived of the power of appointing his own successor, and the Company nominate one of the royal family to succeed him, as latterly took place in the year 1767.

The speech made, on that occasion, by Mr. Ossenberg, ordinary counsellor of India, who was deputed thither from Batavia, to represent the united Dutch East India Company, as lord paramount, from its peculiarity, is well worthy of being inserted literally in this place; translated out of the Malay, the language in which it was delivered.

“His excellency the governor-general, and the honourable the council of India, having thought fit and resolved to appoint me commissary plenipotentiary to the court of Bantam, in order, at the request of the king, to propose and appoint his majesty's eldest son Pangorang (prince) Gusti, hereditary prince, and successor to the empire of Bantam; and this desirable period being now arrived, in consequence, I, the commissary aforesaid, in the name and behalf of the general East India Company of the Nether-

lands, appoint the said pangorang, to be pangorang ratoo, or hereditary prince, and heir to the crown and the whole empire of Bantam, by the title of Abdul Mofagir Mohamed Ali Joudeen.

“The commissary expects, that the said pangorang ratoo will, at all times, consider this his important promotion, as a peculiar favour, and a great benefit conferred upon him by the honourable Company; being adopted from this moment, as the grandson of the East India Company of the Netherlands; and that he will henceforth, on all occasions, and in all times, behave with integrity and gratitude towards them, obeying the commands of the honourable Company, and of the king his father, during his whole life.”

After the appointment, this barangue was again read, by order of the commissary, in the Malay language, in the presence of the king his father, of all the grandees of his court, and a number of the Company's servants, who had come from Batavia, and belonged to the retinue of the commissary; and the ceremony concluded with playing of *gongoms*, and other demonstrations of joy.

The second empire in Java is that of Jacatra, which is bounded, to the east, by that of Cheribon, and to the west, by the kingdom of

Bantam. Jaccatra was formerly governed by its own kings; but the last of these having been subdued by the arms of the Company in the year 1619, they have ever since possessed it, by the right of conquest, as sovereigns. It is under the immediate government of the governor-general and council of India, and all the Javanese of Jaccatra are therefore born the Company's subjects. Before this revolution, Jaccatra was the capital of the empire; but Batavia, which is built very near the former, is now the chief place.

The third empire is that of Cheribon. This is under the dominion of three different princes, who are independent of the Company, and sovereigns in their respective districts. Yet they are their allies, and, in the same manner as the king of Bantam, they are bound, by treaty, to sell all the produce of their territories, exclusively to the Company, and not to permit any other nation than the Dutch to enter their dominions; for the due maintenance of which conditions, the Company likewise take care to guard and garrison their seaports.

These would be the only princes in Java, who possessed not only nominal, but also real sovereignty, were it not for the situation of their dominions, which lie between Jaccatra, and the empire of the Soesoehoenam, or emperor of Java,

who is also a dependant on the Company; of whom they must of course stand in awe, and whose wishes they must in every respect observe; for if they do not, the Company make no scruple of dethroning one prince, and establishing another in his stead.

The Company exercised their power in this respect, in the commencement of the year 1769. One of these Cheribon princes, not treating his subjects well, was put under arrest, by orders from the council of India, and banished to the castle Victoria, in the island of Amboyna; while another prince of the blood was elevated to the vacant dignity, upon condition, however, of his furnishing a certain annual sum of money, for the support of his imprisoned predecessor.

The fourth empire is that of the Soesoechoenam, or emperor of Java, which is often called Soesoechoenam Mataram, from the place of his residence. This empire comprehended, of old, the greater part of the island: that of Cheribon once formed part of it, and it was then very powerful; but, since the Dutch have been established here, it has lost much of its lustre and importance. Yet it remained undivided till about the middle of the present century, when the emperor found himself so much embarrassed, in consequence of the rebellion of Manko Boeni, a prince of the blood, that he made a cession of

his territories to the Company, who, in return, granted him the half back again as their vassal, and promised him their protection, engaging at the same time, never to make an emperor of Java, who was not a prince of the imperial family.

The empire being thus split into two parts, the other half was, in like manner, given to Manko Boeni, as the Company's vassal, under the title of Sultan, with a similar promise of protection, and engagement never to nominate any other than princes of his family, as successors to his dignity. This other half constitutes the fifth empire of Java.

To these may be added a sixth, though it does not properly belong to Java; being a separate island, but close to it: the island and principality of Madura, which is divided from Java by a narrow strait. It is under the government of a prince, who is equally a vassal of the Company, who also dispose of the succession.

All these princes are under engagements to deliver the produce of their respective countries to the Company alone, and not to sell any of it to another nation; likewise, not to enter into any connexions, or treaties, with other powers; and great care is taken to enforce these conditions, by the Company, whose numerous forts and garrisons, along the whole north coast of

Java, render the contravention of them extremely difficult, if not wholly impossible, to the native princes. Were they, however, all to unite against the Company, the latter would be in a very disagreeable predicament; but their mutual and unceasing jealousies and animosities are safeguards against this. Though the Company's government do not perhaps foment, yet they do not extinguish the flames of discord; which being always kept smouldering, make one native prince prevent whatever another may design against the Company.

It was likewise for very solid political reasons, that the empire of Java was allowed, or rather contrived, to be divided into two states; for such an extent of territory as it formerly comprehended, would always have made, whoever was its sole master, a dangerous neighbour to the Company, whereas, being under the dominion of two men, who are irreconcilable enemies, it is easily kept in entire subjection.

CHAPTER II.

Climate of Java.—Land and Sea Winds.—Monsoons.—Thunder-storms.—Rivers.—Productions.—Pepper.—Rice.—Sugar.—Coffee.—Cotton-yarn.—Salt.—Indigo.—Timber.—Fruits.—Vast Variety of them.—The Natives.—Their Character.—Dress.—Customs.—Dwellings.—Food.—Diversions.—Religion.—Physicians.—Agriculture.

JAVA is situated to the south of the equator, in a climate which was thought uninhabitable by the ancients, who believed that the scorching heat rendered the land there so arid and barren, as to be unable to produce any thing for the subsistence of man. This opinion originated from their total ignorance of the interior parts of Africa, which lie between the tropics, as well as respecting the Indies, and the great peninsula beyond the Ganges. The improvements of navigation, in modern times, have exploded this error, and proved that the lands near the equinoctial line, far from being barren and uninhabited, yield the palm in nothing to less torrid regions, and are able to feed full as many inha-

bitants, as the most fertile country in the temperate climates.

The idea, that the heat must be utterly insupportable in these parts, is not so absurd, for the sun is twice a year vertically over them, and its rays shoot almost always in a perpendicular line; so that it would be nearly as bad as was supposed, if Nature herself did not come to their assistance, by the refreshing land and sea breezes, which blow here alternately throughout the year, and so far moderate the heat, as to make it tolerable to most men. As the rising and setting of the sun is likewise always nearly at the same hour, and scarcely differs more than a few minutes, the long nights consequently cool the air so much, that in the morning, for an hour or two before daybreak, it may be rather said to be cold than warm, especially by such people as have resided here for some time.

From the month of July to November, the thermometer of Fahrenheit was always, in the hottest part of the day, between 84° and 90° , excepting only one day, when it rose to 92° ; and in the greatest degree of coolness in the morning, it was seldom lower than 76° . This thermometer was placed in the open air, in the city of Batavia, shaded both from the rays of the sun, and from their reflection.

The barometer undergoes little or no variation,

and stands for a whole year at twenty-nine inches ten lines, according to daily observations.

The warmth of the air decreases greatly, on approaching the mountains, which lie towards the southern parts of the island. At the country-seat of the governor-general, called Buitenzorg (rural care), situated full sixteen Dutch miles south from Batavia, at the foot of the Blue mountains, the cold is so great in the morning, that not only thick clothes are requisite, but it is difficult to become warm even with them. Dr. Thunberg, who visited both Buitenzorg and the Blue mountains, says, that the climate is very healthy and refreshing, and the air, especially in the morning and evening, absolutely cold, insomuch that, not having brought a great coat with him, he was "chilled, and perfectly shivered with the cold evening air, in a country that lies almost directly under the equator."

The land and sea winds blow here every day without exception. The sea-breeze, which in the east monsoon is generally confined between E. N. E. and north, but in the west monsoon runs as far as N. W. and farther, begins to blow about eleven or twelve o'clock in the forenoon. It increases gradually in the afternoon till evening, and then dies imperceptibly away, till about eight or nine o'clock, when it is perfectly calm. The land-wind begins at midnight, or just be-

fore, and continues till an hour or two after sunrise, when it generally again falls calm; till the sea-breeze comes on at its accustomed hour.

The year is divided into two seasons, one of which is called the east monsoon, or dry season, and the other the west monsoon, or rainy season.

The east, or good monsoon, commences in the months of April and May, and ends in the latter end of September, or the beginning of October. The trade-winds then blow, about four or five leagues off shore, and through the whole of the Indian seas to the south of the line, from the S. E. and E. S. E.; at times, however, running as far as S. S. E. with fine dry weather, and a clear sky.

The west, or bad monsoon, generally begins in the latter end of November or beginning of December. The wind often blows with great violence, and is accompanied by heavy torrents of rain, which render this season very unhealthy, and a time of the greatest mortality. The same winds are likewise found to prevail every where to the south of the line. They continue till the latter end of February or the beginning of March, and are very variable till April; in which month the easterly winds begin to blow: thence these months, as likewise October and part of November, are called the shifting months; and the time of the breaking up of the mon-

soons are esteemed, at Batavia, the most unhealthy of all.

It is very remarkable, that, when the westerly winds blow as far as nine or ten degrees south of the line, the contrary takes place, at the same time, and to the same distance, to the north of it; and *vice versa*, when the westerly winds prevail to the north, the easterly winds blow to the south of the line; which alternation is greatly helpful to the navigation westward of Java.

For some years past, it has been observed at Batavia, that the commencement of the monsoons begins to be very uncertain, so that neither their beginning nor their end can be depended upon with so much certainty as formerly; the cause of which has not hitherto been discovered.

Thunder-storms are very frequent at Batavia, especially towards the conclusion of the monsoons, when they occur almost every evening. They, however, seldom do much damage.

There are no large rivers in Java navigable by vessels of even a moderate burden, but many small ones, which, flowing from the mountains in a northerly direction, run into the sea, all along the northern coast; they are, however, mostly choked up at the mouth by sands or mud-banks, which render their entrances, at low water, very difficult to the smallest vessels.

On the bank, or bar, before Batavia, the flood

risks about six feet, though at spring-tides, as every where, it is more. High and low water, likewise, only occur once in four-and-twenty hours.

The productions of the island are considerable, and of great importance to the Company; more particularly for the last thirty years, in which period the cultivation of coffee and other articles has been assiduously prosecuted and encouraged.

The chief produce is pepper, which is mostly grown in the western part of the island. This spice is produced from a plant of the vine kind, *piper nigrum*, which twines its tendrils round poles or trees, like ivy or hops. The peppercorns grow in bunches close to each other. They are first green, but afterwards turn black. When dried they are separated from the dust, and partly from the outward membranous coat, by means of a kind of winnow, called a harp, and then laid up in warehouses. This winnow, or harp, is an oblong frame, with a bottom of iron wire closely twisted, so that the peppercorns cannot pass through it; this is set sloping, and the engarbled pepper rolling along it, frees itself from most of its impurities.

The empire of Bantam, with its dependencies at Dampon, yield annually to the Company more than six millions of pounds of this spice. This pepper is esteemed the next best to that which

comes from the coast of Malabar. That from Palembang, of which likewise a very considerable quantity is delivered to the Company, as well as that of Borneo, is of a much inferior quality.

The price for which the king of Bantam is obliged to sell all the pepper produced in his dominions, is fixed at six rixdollars, or fourteen gilders and eight stivers per picol of one hundred and twenty-five pounds, nearly two-pence half-penny per pound.

It has been the opinion of many, that the white pepper is the fruit of a plant distinct from that which produces the black; this, however, is not the case; they are both the same production; but the white is manufactured by being laid in lime, which takes off its outer coat and renders it whitish. This is done before the pepper is perfectly dry.

Rice, *oryza sativa*, is the second product of Java, and is collected in large quantities, especially in the empire of Java proper. It grows chiefly in low ferny ground. After it has been sown, and has shot up about two or three handbreadths above the ground, it is transplanted by little bundles of six or more plants, in rows; then, by damming up the many rivulets which abound in this country, the rice is inundated in the rainy season, and kept under water till the stalks have attained sufficient strength; when

the land is drained, by opening the dams, and it is soon dried by the great heat of the sun.

At the time of the rice-harvest, the fields have much the same appearance as our wheat and barley fields, and afford an equally rich scene of golden uniformity.

The sickle is not used in reaping the rice, but instead of it a small knife, with which the stalk is cut about a foot under the ear; this is done one by one, and they are then bound into sheaves, the tenth of which is the reward of the mower.

The *paddee*, which is the name given to the rice whilst in the husk*, does not grow, like wheat and barley, in compact ears, but, like oats, in loose spikes. It is not threshed, to separate it from the husk, but stamped in large wooden blocks, hollowed out; and the more it is stamped the whiter it becomes when boiled. The native Indians throughout the East use this grain as bread, and as their principal food.

Java has been called the granary of the East, on account of the immense quantity of rice

* The following, besides many others, are names applied to rice, in its different stages of growth and preparation: *paddee*, original name of the seed; *ossay*, grain of last season; *bunne*, the rice-plants before transplantation; *bras* or *bray*, rice, stripped of its husk; *charneya*, rice cleaned for boiling; *nassee*, boiled rice, &c.

which it produces. The other islands in this neighbourhood yield little or none, except Celebes, where enough is grown to provide Amboyna with this staff of life.

In the year 1767 the quantity of fourteen thousand tons of rice was required, and furnished, for the consumption of Batavia, Ceylon, and Banda, from the island of Java.

Sugar is produced in large quantities in Java, and brought to Batavia. The quantity of thirteen millions of pounds, manufactured in the year 1768 in the province of Jaccatra alone, is sufficient to show with what luxuriance the sugar-cane, *saccharum officinarum*, flourishes here. Much of it is exported to the west of India, to Surat and the coast of Malabar, and the rest to Europe. Most of the sugar-mills are kept and worked by Chinese.

A fourth production of the island is coffee. The plantations of it are, however, peculiarly confined to the provinces of Cheribon and Jaccatra. The tree, *coffea*, which produces this berry, was first introduced into Java in 1722 or 1725, under the government of the governor-general Zwaarderkroon, who greatly encouraged the cultivation of it among the Japanese. It is so much multiplied, that in 1768 Jaccatra furnished 4,465,500 pounds weight to the Company, who paid four rixdollars per picol, being

equal to about 14s. 5d. sterling per cwt.; but other accounts make this article stand them in the same proportion as the pepper, two pence halfpenny per pound, or about 17. 2s. per cwt.: the first is probably what is paid to the cultivators, and the last the invoice value, with the addition of the charges.

Cotton yarn is likewise an important object of trade, which Java furnishes to the Company. It is spun by the Javanese from the cotton produced, in great plenty, in the interior parts. The province of Jaccatra yielded, in 1768, no more than 133 picols, or 16,225 pounds, which was 1875 pounds less than ought to have been delivered by the Indians, according to the quota imposed upon them; but this deficiency was occasioned by a season of uncommon drought, by which the cotton crop had been materially injured.

Salt, much of which is brought from Reng-hang to Batavia, is also an article of trade for the Company, who dispose of it for a handsome profit at the west coast of Sumatra.

Another product is indigo, which is mostly shipped to Europe. The culture of the plant which produces this dye, *indigofera tinctoria*, is prosecuted with vigour in the province of Jaccatra. In the year 1768, the natives were ac-

essed at 6125 pounds, though they only furnished 2875 pounds.

Large quantities of heavy timber are also brought from the north-east coast of Java to Batavia. This is not, in reality, a branch of trade for the Company; but it is of great importance for ship-building, and other purposes.

The great importance of this island to the Company is very apparent. It produces some of their most considerable articles of commerce, and provides the greater part of their Indian possessions with food, besides furnishing materials for ship-building.

The island is extremely abundant in fruit-trees. First is the cocoanut-palm, *cocos nucifera*, which is well known; the *suri*-tree, which yields the palm-wine, or toddy; china-oranges, *citrus aurantium*, of which there are two sorts, one of a large, and the other of a smaller size; the tamarind-tree, *tamarindus indica*, the fruit of which consists in pods, containing the tamarind, a spongy substance, in which the beans or stones are inclosed; the *pompelmoes*, or shaddock, *citrus decumanus*, the fruit of which is most wholesome, on account of its refreshing quality and taste. It is a large lemon, of the size of a child's head; the juice is moderately acid, and quenches thirst; it is cooling, antiseptic, and antiscorbutic.

Next the *durioon*, or *drioon* tree, the fruit of

which is inclosed in a hard shell, of the size of a man's head, and sometimes larger; it has a most disagreeable smell, which is extremely offensive to those who have never eaten of it; when once, however, the fruit is tasted, the loathing which its odour is apt to excite is quickly overcome, and use makes it, in the end, so familiar, that it is generally preferred beyond all other fruits. It is a strong stimulative, and is therefore much prized by the Chinese. The tree is large and lofty; the leaves are small in proportion, but in themselves long and pointed. The blossoms grow in clusters, on the stem and larger branches. The petals are five, of a yellowish white, surrounding five bunches of stamina, each bunch containing about twelve, and each stamen having four antheræ. The pointal is knobbed at top. When the stamina and petals fall, the empalement resembles a fungus, and is nearly the shape of a Scotch-bonnet. The fruit is not unlike the bread-fruit, but larger, and rougher on the outside. It has by some been confounded with the bread-fruit. It is considered as diuretic and sudorific, and serviceable in expelling wind.

The *tursak*-tree has a fruit similar to the *durion*, but it is not accompanied by such a fetid smell; it seems to be the *nanca*, or jakes, of Cook, and the *boa nanca* (*radermachia*) of Thunberg; or what is commonly called the jack, by the English: at

Batavia, it is generally of the size of a large melon; its smell somewhat resembles that of mellow apples, mixed with garlick; the outer coat is covered with angular prickles, and contains a number of seeds, or kernels, which, when roasted, eat like chesnuts, inclosed in a fleshy substance, of a rich, but, to strangers, strong flavour, but which gains upon the taste.

The *mango-tree*, *mangifera indica*, deserves equally to be noticed; its fruit, when ripe, is of a thin, oblong shape, and about the size of a goose's egg. Its coat is not thick, of a yellow colour, and soft. When peeled, it has a fleshy substance. Within it is of an orange colour, like a melon, to which its flavour has some analogy; but a good mango is much more delicious. In the centre is a large kernel. When green it is made into *attjar* (a common name for all articles preserved in vinegar with spices); for this the kernel is taken out, and the space filled up with ginger, pimento, and other spicy ingredients, after which it is pickled in vinegar, and is sent to all parts.

The *mango-tangs*, or mangosteen, *garcinia mangostea*, is esteemed the most delicious fruit of the Indies. It is generally of the size of an apple, and resembles a pomegranate in appearance, only it is larger and thicker, and its coat is not so tough. The fruit, when stripped of

the outward rind, appears like a little apple, of a snow-white hue, composed of six or seven lobes, of the size of the joint of a finger, with a black stone in the inside; they are very soft and juicy, and their flavour is delightfully refreshing beyond description. The taste approaches nearest to that of the peach; but it is rather more mellow. The tree is about the size of that of a common plum. Some assert that they have been cured of a dysentery of long standing by eating large quantities of this fruit; though others are of opinion, that it produces a contrary effect. The rind has a strong astringent power, and might perhaps be used as a dye for a fine deep red colour. The Chinese use the rind of the mangosteen for dying black.

Lemon, *citrus medica*, and lime trees, are in great plenty, as is also a certain fruit called *katappa*, *terminalia catappa*, like our walnuts, but better tasted. It grows upon a high tree, which affords an agreeable shade, and is inclosed in a green husk, where it lies in rolls, and is as white as milk.

Pine-apples, *bromelia ananas*, are produced in large quantities, and are therefore little esteemed at Batavia; they are generally sold for the value of a stiver (penny) apiece, and sometimes for less.

Besides these, the fruits most worthy of re-

mark are the *pisang*, or bananas, *musa paradisiaca*, of which there are several sorts; the best, *pisang radja*, is delicious and wholesome, with a thin coat and an inner pulp, which is sweetish, and somewhat mealy; it is eaten both raw and dressed in various ways. The *jambou*, *eugenia malaccensis*, is of a deep red colour and oval shape; the largest not bigger than a small apple; it is pleasant and cooling, though it has not much flavour. The *jambou-eyer-mauer*, *eugenia jambos*, both smells and tastes like conserve of roses. The *papaya*, *carica papaya*, is as large as a small melon, and the yellow pulp within has nearly the same taste. The sweetsop, *annona squamosa*, consists of a mass of large kernels, from which the surrounding pulp, which is very sweet and mealy, is sucked. The custard-apple, *annona reticulata*, derives its English name from the likeness which its white and rich pulp bears to a custard. The *rambutan*, *nephelium lappaceum*, grows in large clusters, and very much resembles a chesnut with the husk on; the eatable part is small in quantity, but its acid is rich and pleasant, and perhaps more agreeable than any other in the whole vegetable kingdom. The *bilimbing*, *averrhoa belimbi*, the *bilimbing basse*, *averrhoa carambola*, and the *cherimelle*, *averrhoa acida*, are three species of one genus, and though they differ in shape, are nearly the same in taste: the

first is oblong, of the thickness of a finger, and so sour that it cannot be eaten alone; the *bilim-bing besse* is an egg-like pentagonal fruit, about the size of a pear, and is the least acid of the three; the last is extremely acid, and of a small roundish irregular shape, growing in clusters close to the branch, and containing each a single seed; they all make excellent pickles and sour sauce. The *guava*, *psidium*, is well known in the West Indies. The *boa bidarra*, *rhamnus jujuba*, is a round yellow fruit, about the size of a gooseberry; its flavour is that of an apple, but it has the astringency of a crab. The *nam-nam*, *synmetra sauliflora*, in shape somewhat resembles a kidney; it is about three inches long, and the outside is very rough; it is seldom eaten raw. The *suntul*, *trichilia*, within a thick skin, contains kernels like those of the mangosteen, but which are both acid and astringent. The *madja*, *limoni*, has, under a hard brittle shell, a lightly acid pulp, which cannot be eaten without sugar. The *salac*, *calamus rotang xalacen*, is the fruit of a prickly bush, and has a singular appearance, being covered with scales, like those of a lizard; it is nutritious and well-tasted, in flavour somewhat resembling a strawberry. The *fokke fokker*, *solanum melongena*, is of a purple-blue colour, shaped like a pear, and of various sizes; it has an agreeable taste when

boiled. Water-melons, *arbuses*, are in great plenty and very good. Grapes, melons, pumpkins, pomegranates, and figs, appear to be the only European fruits at Batavia, though strawberries and some others are said to thrive in the interior parts of the country.

The native inhabitants are all commonly called Javanese, whether they belong to the kingdom of Bantam or to any other part of Java; those of Madura bear the name of their island. They are of a middling size, and in general well-proportioned, of a light brown colour, with a broad forehead and a flattish nose, which has a small curve downwards at the tip. Their hair is black, and is always kept smooth and shining, with cocoanut-oil. They are in general proud, lazy, and cowardly. Their principal weapon is *kris*, a kind of dagger, like a small hunting-knife, and which they always carry with them. The handle or hilt is made of different materials, more or less valuable, according to the wealth or dignity of the wearer. The blade is well-hardened steel, of a serpentine shape, and thus capable of making a large and wide wound. It is often poisoned, and in that case causes immediate death. Arrogant towards their inferiors, they are no less cringing to their superiors, or those from whom they have any favour to expect. Their dress consists in a piece of cotton, which

they wrap round the waist, and drawing it between the legs, fasten it behind. They are otherwise naked, except that they wear a small cap. This is the dress of the common people. Those of more consideration wear a wide Moorish coat of flowered cotton, or other stuff, and in general turbans, instead of caps. They suffer no hair but that of the head to grow, and eradicate it carefully wherever it appears elsewhere.

The dress of the women is little better than that of the men : it consists in a piece of cotton-cloth, which they call *saron*, and which, wrapping round the body, just covers the bosom, under which it is fastened, and hangs down to the knees, and sometimes to the ancles : the shoulders and part of the back remain uncovered. The hair of the head, which they wear very long, is turned up, and twisted round like a fillet, fastened with long bodkins of different sorts of wood, tortoise-shell, silver, or gold, according to the rank or wealth of the lady. This head-dress is called a *vondé*, and is also in vogue among the Batavian ladies. It is often adorned with a variety of flowers.

The men and women are very fond of bathing, especially in the morning. Children of both sexes go entirely naked, till about eight or nine

years of age; twelve or thirteen is their age of puberty.

The Javanese are polygamists; they marry as many wives as they can maintain, and take their female slaves for concubines. This, however, of course, does not occur with the common people, who must be content with one wife, because they cannot afford to keep more. The women are proportionally more comely than the men, and are very fond of white men. They are jealous in the extreme, and know how to make an European, with whom they have had a love-affair, and who proves inconstant, dearly repent his incontinence and his fickleness, by administering certain drugs, which disqualify him for the repetition of either. People of the utmost credibility at Batavia have related too many examples of this refinement of female revenge, to render the circumstance doubtful.

Their dwellings may, with greater propriety, be called huts, than houses. They are constructed of split bamboos, interlaced or matted, plastered with clay, and covered with *attap*, or the leaves of the cocoa-nut tree. The entrance is low, and has neither door nor shutter. The whole house usually consists of but one apartment, in which husband, wife, children, and sometimes poultry, of which they keep a great many, pig together on the ground. They always choose a

shady place for building, or plant trees all round. Such as possess more property, are provided with a little more comfort and convenience; but it is always in a wretched, paltry manner.

Their chief food is boiled rice with a little fish, and their drink water. They do not, however, reject arrack, when they can obtain it. They are almost continually chewing betel, or *pinang*, and likewise a sort of tobacco produced here, and therefore denominated Java tobacco, which they also smoke, through pipes made of reed: they sometimes put opium into their pipes, with the tobacco, in order to invigorate their spirits; but the continual use of it rather deadens them: some, who have been too immoderate in this indulgence, sit like statues, with open fixed eyes, and speechless.

They have no tables nor chairs, but sit upon the ground, or upon mats, with their legs crossed under them. They neither make use of knives, forks, nor spoons, but eat with their fingers. They have a certain kind of musical instruments, called *gompons*, consisting of hollow iron bowls, of various sizes and tones, upon which a man strikes with an iron or wooden stick; their harmony is not disagreeable, and they are not unlike a set of bells.

Cockfighting, for which they keep a peculiar breed, is a favourite diversion. Though never so poor, they will sooner dispose of every other part of their property, than their game-cocks. They are, besides, obliged to pay a tax to the Company for these fowls; and this duty is yearly farmed at Batavia, and forms part of the revenues of the province of Jacatra. In the year 1770 it amounted to about 35*l.* 10*s.* per month; it is, however, peculiar to that province.

A kind of tennis-play is also a favourite diversion among them, and they are very handy and dexterous at it. They strike the ball with their feet, knees, or elbows, whither they choose, and receive it back; thus keeping it for some time in continual motion, without its touching the ground: the ball is generally of the size of a man's head, hollow, and made of matted reeds.

Their manner of salutation consists in touching the forehead with the right hand, accompanied by a slight inclination of the body.

The Mahomedan religion is predominant over the whole island. It is said, that far inland, over the mountains, towards the south side of the island, some of the aboriginal idolatrous natives are still to be met with. Mosques, or places of prayer of the Mahomedans, are erected all over

the island; there is a very famous one near Cheribon. They are very particular about the tombs of their saints, and will suffer nothing unbecoming to be done upon or near them.

They have both male and female physicians, who have been known to effect very surprising cures by their knowledge of the medicinal and vulnerary herbs produced in their country. They have sometimes greater practice among the Europeans at Batavia, than those physicians who have been regularly bred, and come from Europe; but they know nothing of anatomy. Much friction of the affected parts, is one of their chief means of cure. This is done with two fingers of the right hand, which are pressed down by the left, and passed continually downwards, after having first anointed the part with water mixed with fine ground wood or oil.

For the purposes of agriculture, they use buffaloes instead of horses, of which, however, there are plenty, but of a diminutive size. The buffaloes are very large animals, bigger and heavier than our largest oxen, furnished with great ears, and horns which project straight forward, and bend inwards. A hole is bored through the cartilage of the nose, and these huge animals are guided by a cord which is passed through it. They are generally of an ash-grey colour, and have little eyes. They are so accustomed to be

conducted three times a day into the water, to cool themselves, that without it they cannot be brought to work. The female gives milk, but it is little valued by the Europeans, on account of its acrimonious nature.

CHAPTER III.

*Batavia.—The River of Jaccatra.—Water-fort.—
 Bar at the Mouth of the River.—The Castle.—
 Buildings in and near it.—Walls of the City.—
 Gates.—Admiralty-wharf.—Quarter for Work-
 men.—Churches.—Houses.—Chinese Houses.—
 Massacre of the Chinese.—Assessment on Rents.
 —Bank of Batavia.—Suburbs.—Chinese Cam-
 pon.—Character of the Chinese.—Their Appear-
 ance.—Dress.—Religion.—Temples.—Divina-
 tion.—Tombs.—Environs of Batavia.—Roads.
 —Streets.*

THE city of Batavia, styled the Queen of the East, on account of the beauty of its buildings, and the immense trade which it carries on, is situated very near the sea, in a fertile plain, in the kingdom of Jaccatra, upon the river of that name, which, running through the middle of the town, divides it into two parts. To the north of the city is the sea-shore; behind it, to the south, the land rises with a gentle, and scarcely perceptible, acclivity to the mountains, which lie fifteen or sixteen Dutch miles, or leagues, inland; one of these, which is very high, bears the name of the Blue mountain.

In 1619, the governor-general, John Pieter-

sen Coen, took the town of Jaccatra, which he, in a great measure destroyed, and founded another city, not exactly on the same spot, but very near it, to which he gave the name of Batavia, though it is said, that he much wished to have called it New Horn, from the place of his nativity, Horn, in North Holland. Although then an inconsiderable place, in point of strength and beauty, he declared it the capital of the Dutch settlements in India: his choice of the situation was so just, his plan so well contrived, and every thing throve so fast under his care, that Batavia rose with unparalleled rapidity to that magnificence and importance, which have rendered it the admiration and the dread of all the more eastern nations of the Indies; and which still dazzle and overawe them, although the city has, for these last fifty years, greatly declined; both as to opulence and population.

The city is an oblong square, the shortest sides facing the north and south, and the longest the east and west. Through the middle of it, from south to north, runs the river of Jaccatra, over which there are three bridges, one at the upper end of the town, another at the lower part, near the castle, and the third about the middle, and thence called the Middle-point bridge. Two of these are built of stone. Close by the middlemost is a large square redoubt, provided with some

pieces of cannon, which command the river, both up and downwards.

The breadth of the river, within the city, is about 160 or 180 feet. It runs into the sea, past the castle and the admiralty-wharf. On both sides of the mouth are long piers of wood and brick-work, about 3800 feet in length, taken from the moat of the city. The eastern pier, which was repaired, and in a great measure rebuilt, a few years ago, cost the Company 36,218 rixdollars in timber, and 36,320 rixdollars in masonry, making, at forty-eight stivers, $f.174,091,4$, about 16,000*l.* sterling; a large sum, when it is considered, that the timber costs the Company but little money, as it is produced in abundance in Java.

The vessels belonging to the free merchants are laid up and repaired between these piers on the west side; but along the east side, the passage remains open for the lighters, which go in and out of the city, with the cargoes of the ships.

At the outward point of the eastern pier is a shed for the horses which draw the small vessels and boats up and down the river.

Opposite to this is a hornwork, commonly called the Water-fort, built during the government of the governor-general Van Imhoff, at an immense expense to the Company; for several large ships were obliged to be sunk, on account

of the depth of water on the spot, in order to lay a good foundation for building the fort. It is constructed of a kind of coral-rock, and defended by several heavy cannon *: within it are barracks for the garrison; and there is no other approach to it than along the western pier. It is at present very much out of repair, and the walls begin to sink and fall in many places.

The objects for which this fort was erected, seem to have been the defence of the road, and of the entrance of the river; yet in both these respects it is now of little advantage, for the anchoring-place is so far removed from this fortification, by the increase of the mud-bank which lies before the river, that, although its guns might reach the ships in the road, little damage could be done on either side, at such a distance†; and as to what regards the defence of the river's mouth, that is of very trifling importance; for the daily and continual increase of the bar

* In 1793, when Lord Macartney visited Batavia, this fort had, mounted and dismounted, fourteen guns and two howitzers.

† Ary Huysers, who wrote an account of the Dutch settlements in India, in 1789, and had been at Batavia a few years before, says, that in his time a trial had been made of the heavy artillery at the mouth of the harbour, and that it was found sufficient to command and protect the whole extent of the road.

renders the water much too shallow for large vessels, and an enemy would never seek to effect a landing there, but would always prefer an easy, firm sea-beach, such as is to be met with beyond Ansjol*.

The above-mentioned bank or bar lies directly before the mouth of the river, and extends a great way to the west, and but a little to the east; for which reasons, such vessels as are deeply laden, must go round by the east side, close along the eastern pier, in order to get within the bar. It is continually increasing towards the road, by which the place where the ships lie is more and more removed from the city. To the westward it is dry in some places.

Right before the mouth of the river, from which the most shallow part of the bank is distant about 600 or 650 feet, there is at low water no more than a foot or a foot and a half, so that a common ship's boat cannot get over it, but must also go round its east end. When the

* At Ansjol, and at Tanjongpoura, to the eastward of the city, on the sea-coast, are strong forts, and to the westward, at Ankay, Tangorang, and the Kwal. On the land-side, Batavia is further covered by the forts at Jaccatra, the Watering-place, Ryswick, &c.; though these are merely defences against the natives, and are most of them little better than fortified houses.

sea-breeze blows fresh, it makes a troublesome and cockling sea ; and a west or bad, monsoon, seldom passes, without the loss of some vessels upon it.

This shoalness of the water is said to be the consequence of a violent earthquake which took place in Java in the latter end of the last century, and by which the river of Jacatra was partly stopped up ; yet the greatest increase of the bank has been since the year 1730 ; and it is to be apprehended that the river will in time become wholly unnavigable and useless.

The castle, or citadel, of Batavia, which forms the north boundary of the eastern division of the city, is a regular square fortress, with four bastions, which are connected by high curtains, except on the south side, where the curtain was broken down during the government of Baron Van Imhoff. The walls and ramparts are built of coral-rock, and are about twenty feet in height. It is surrounded by a wet ditch, over which, on the south side, lies a drawbridge. Between the moat and the buildings within the fort, on this side, is a large area or esplanade. In the centre of the buildings looking towards the city, is a great gate and broad passage, with warehouses on each side, leading to another esplanade on the north side, inclosed between

the ramparts and the buildings, all which is appropriated to the use of the Company*.

The government-house, which forms the left wing of the buildings to the south, is provided with numerous and convenient apartments, but is at present uninhabited. In it is a large hall, where the council of India generally assemble twice a week; this is adorned with the portraits of all the governors-general since the establishment of the Company.

Close by is a little church, or chapel, usually called the Castle-church; and somewhat more forwards a guard-house, where a party of dragoons always mount guard.

Over the castle-bridge there is a great plain, or square, planted with tamarind-trees, which afford a very agreeable shade. The entrance to it from the city is over a bridge, through a large and stately gate. This is surmounted by a bold

* Captain Parish's account of this fortress, in Macartney's Embassy to China, 1793, is as follows:—"A little above was the castle; a regular square fort, but without ravelins or other outworks. It had two guns mounted on each flank, and two, or sometimes three, on each face; they were not *en barbette*, nor properly *en embrasure*, but in a situation between both, having both their disadvantages, without the advantages of either. The wall was of masonry, about twenty-four feet high. It had no ditch, but a canal surrounded it at some distance. It had no cordon. The length of the exterior side of the work was about 700 feet."

cupola, from which rises an octagon tower, containing the only public clock, to be met with at Batavia. It was built under the government of Baron Van Imhoff, as appears by an inscription over the gateway, and forms no trifling embellishment of the city.

On the left side of the gate is a large building, used as a guard-house, having in front a long gallery, resting upon a row of pillars, and where a captain's guard of grenadiers is generally posted.

On the west side of the square stand the Company's artillery-house, and the dispensary, or provision-magazine, both of which reach back to the river-side, so that the goods are taken in and out of the lighters with the greatest ease. This is an advantage which is possessed by almost all the Company's warehouses and repositories in Batavia.

On the opposite side are the iron-magazine, and what is termed the grass-plot, being the place of execution for criminals: this is an artificial square eminence, upon which are a gallows and some posts; behind it is a small building, with windows looking towards the place of execution, whence the counsellors of justice behold the completion of their sentences. It is customary throughout Holland and its dependencies, for the magistrates, or judges, who have passed

sentence upon criminals, to preside at the execution of it. This is, in Europe, generally done upon some open place before their town-halls, from the windows of which the magistrates, dressed in their robes of ceremony, behold the execution.

A number of pieces of artillery, iron and brass, and of all sorts and sizes, together with other warlike implements, are ranged upon the plain. Any one may ride through the gate just mentioned, as far as the drawbridge of the castle, but not over it, unless he have the rank of senior merchant.

The city is encircled by a wall of coral-rock*, defended by twenty-two bastions, or bulwarks, all provided with artillery, and surrounded by a broad moat, in which there is seldom any want of water, that being conveyed into it from the river.

Batavia has five gates; one at the east side, which is called the Rotterdam gate; two to the south, the New gate, and the Diest gate; one to the west, the Utrecht gate; and one on the north side, west of the river, called the Square gate.

* Sir George Staunton says, that part of the town-wall is constructed of lava, which is of a dark blue colour, of a very hard dense texture, emits a metallic sound, and closely resembles some of the lava of Vesuvius.

Near the last-mentioned gate, and opposite to the castle, is the admiralty-wharf; and not far off, the warehouses for naval stores, as likewise the workshops of the carpenters, coopers, sail-makers, and smiths, with other offices connected with the shipping. Here are also the houses of the commandants and comptrollers of equipment, who were formerly obliged to reside upon the wharf; but for some years past this regulation has not been observed, and they now live in more pleasant parts of the town.

In the south east corner of the city, close to the ramparts, lies the *Ambagtskwartier*, or the workmen's quarter, in which all the mechanics and labourers who are employed by the Company in their buildings, have their abode. The journeymen work here under masters of their respective trades, carpenters, smiths, plumbers, braziers, masons, and others, who are all accountable to the chief of the quarter, who is called *fabriek*, or head-workman, and has generally the rank of merchant. Besides a great number of Europeans who are employed here, there are full a thousand slaves, by whom the Company incurs an enormous expense, with little benefit from their labour, which generally turns to the advantage of individual members of the government.

Within the city are three churches for the re-

formed religion, in which service is performed in the Dutch, Portuguese, and Malay languages; and one without the gates, which is called the outer Portuguese church. Besides these a Lutheran church was built during the government of Baron Van Imhoff, not far from the castle; this is provided with a fine organ and a very handsome pulpit.

There is a town-hall, with other public buildings. The houses are mostly of brick, run up in a light airy manner, and stuccoed on the outside, with sash windows. Within they are almost all built upon a similar plan, the fronts being in general narrow, though there are a few which are more extended.

On entering the door there is a narrow passage, and on one side a parlour; then you come into a large long room, lighted from an inner court, which trenches upon this apartment, and renders its form irregular. This is called the gallery, and is the place where the family usually live and dine. The floors are of large, square, dark red stones. No hangings are to be seen, but the walls are neatly stuccoed and whitened. The furniture consists in some arm-chairs, two or three sofas, and a great many looking-glasses, which the Europeans, in these regions, are very fond of. Several chandeliers and lamps are hung in a row, along the length of the gallery, which

are lighted up in the evening. The stairs leading to the upper rooms are generally at the end of this apartment. Six or seven steps up, is one which stands over the store-room, or cellar, where the stock of wine, beer, butter, &c. is kept. Up stairs the houses are distributed almost the same as below. They are in general but poorly provided with furniture; and the setting out of rooms is not so much in vogue here as in Holland; nothing is added which is superfluous; or more than is wanted for use. Behind the gallery are the lodgings for the slaves, the kitchen, &c. Few houses have gardens, and there are not even the least vestiges of there ever having been gardens behind the houses. In several, the windows are closed with a lattice-work of rattans, instead of being glazed, for the sake of air.

The above relates only to the houses of Europeans, which are the greatest in number. The few Chinese who live at present within the city, have very wretched houses, the inside of which is very irregularly distributed. They mostly dwell in the southern and western suburbs, called the Chinese Campon. Before the revolt of the year 1740, they had the best quarter of the city allotted to them, to the west of the great river; but when, in that commotion, all their

houses were burnt to the ground*, the whole quarter was made into a *passar*, or market, where

* The following account of this massacre, extracted from a very recent and intelligent Dutch writer, Ary Huysers, who was long resident at Batavia, may not be unacceptable.—“A little before the perpetration of this massacre, several thousand Chinese adventurers and fortune-hunters had resorted to Batavia, allured by the prosperity of their countrymen already settled there. The great number of these new colonists, together with the robberies and murders which were committed by them, excited no little degree of just apprehension. The famous Van Hartoff, who was at that time a member of the council, proposed, in order to get rid of these useless and dangerous new-comers, that every Chinese who could not prove that he had an honest livelihood, should be seized and transported to Ceylon, there to be employed in mining, or other labor, for the service of the Company. This advice was approved and immediately followed. A great number of Chinese were seized and put in irons; but imprudently several Chinese of property were secured by the under-officers charged with the execution of the order, and were only liberated on paying large sums of money. This occasioned great murmurs, and led the rest of the nation to credit a report which was spread abroad, that those who were unable to pay would be drowned or otherwise put to death. They in consequence retired by thousands from the city towards the interior parts, and strengthened themselves so much as to render the fate of Batavia itself precarious. In this dilemma the council first offered an amnesty to the discontented Chinese, but this they rejected with scorn; and purposing to exterminate the whole Christian settlement, began by ravaging the country in the wildest manner, burning the sugar-works, and marching down to the gates of the city. Here however they met with a severe repulse. The civil and military inhabitants united in resisting them, and

all kinds of provisions are now daily exposed to sale.

drove them back again into the country. During these commotions the Chinese who resided within the town kept themselves perfectly quiet; and in order that these innocent people might not be exposed to insult, the government issued an order, prohibiting them from leaving their houses after six o'clock in the evening, and ordering them to keep their doors shut. This prudent precaution was not, however, sufficient to protect them from the fury of the irritated soldiery and sailors who were in the city, and had witnessed the devastations of the Chinese without the gates. Suddenly and unexpectedly an instantaneous cry of murder and horror resounded through the town, and the most dismal scene of barbarity and rapine presented itself on all sides. All the Chinese, without distinction, men, women, and children, were put to the sword. Neither pregnant women nor sucking infants were spared by the relentless assassins. The prisoners in chains, about a hundred in number, were at the same time slaughtered like sheep. European citizens, to whom some of the wealthy Chinese had fled for safety, violating every principle of humanity and morality, delivered them up to their sanguinary pursuers, and embezzled the property confided to them. In short, all the Chinese, guilty and innocent, were exterminated. And whence did the barbarous order by which they suffered emanate? Here a veil has industriously been drawn, and the truth will probably never be known with certainty. The governor-general, Valkenier, and his brother-in-law Helvetius, were accused by the public voice of directing the massacre; but it was never proved upon them." It is remarkable, that, when Valkenier was afterwards condemned to imprisonment for life at Batavia, among the numerous charges brought against him for mal-administration during his government, no notice was

The poundage, or assessment, which is paid annually by every house, consists in half a month's rent. This money is expended in dragging and cleansing the canals, and in repairing the town-hall and other buildings belonging to the city. Permission must be requested every year of the Company's government to levy this assessment in behalf of the city, which is seldom refused.

The houses are not let by the year, but by the month; the rents run from five to forty, six-dollars per month. A good house, in an agreeable situation, may be hired for twenty or twenty-

taken of his presumed instrumentality in this dreadful massacre.

Much apprehension was entertained that this occurrence would excite the indignation of the emperor of China, and deputies were sent to him the following year to apologize for the measure. The letter written to the emperor on the occasion is given at length by Huysers; the only remarkable circumstance in which it differs from the above relation, is the allegation that some Chinese within the city had set fire to it in different places, and were preparing to rise upon the Europeans; but the extermination of the innocent with the guilty is acknowledged, and attempted to be excused on the plea of necessity. These deputies were agreeably surprised on finding that the emperor calmly answered, that "he was little solicitous for the fate of unworthy subjects, who, in the pursuit of lucre, had quitted their country and abandoned the tombs of their ancestors."

five rixdollars. A rixdollar, at Batavia, is worth forty-eight stivers, or about 4s. 4d. sterling.

The churches are repaired out of the duties levied upon funerals.

A bank of circulation has been established here for some years, which is united with the lombard, or bank for lending money on pledges. It is under the administration of a director, who is generally a counsellor of India, two commissaries, a cashier, and a book-keeper.

A fee of five rixdollars is given at the opening of an account; and stamped bank-bills, signed by the director and commissaries, are delivered for the money placed in the bank. Its capital is computed to amount to between two and three millions of rixdollars; between 435,000l. and 650,000l. sterling.

The suburbs of Batavia are remarkable on account of their considerable extent, uncommon pleasantness, and great population. They are inhabited by Indians of various nations, and by some Europeans. The Chinese quarter is the most populous, and seems itself a city, with numerous streets; yet their houses are mean and small. It is crowded with shops, containing all kinds of goods, as well those of their own manufacture, and such as they receive annually from China, as what they buy up of those imported from Europe. The number of the Chinese

who live both within and without the walls of the city, cannot be determined with precision; but it must be very considerable, as the Company receive a poll-tax from them of more than 40,000 rixdollars.

Every Chinese who has a profession is obliged to pay a monthly poll-tax of half a ducatoon, six shillings; women, children, and those who have no trade, are exempted from the tax; so that their number can only be guessed at. They are under a chief of their own nation, who is known by the appellation of Chinese Captain; he lives within the walls, and has six lieutenants under him in different districts. A flag is hoisted at his door, on the first or second day in every month, and the Chinese, liable to the tax, are then obliged to come to him to pay it.

Like the Jews in Europe, they are very cunning in trade, both in the largest dealings and in the most trifling pedlary. They are so desirous of money, that a Chinese will run three times from one end of the city to the other, if he have but the prospect of gaining one penny. In doing any business with them, the greatest care must be taken to avoid being cheated.

Their stature is rather short than tall; they are in general tolerably square, and not so brown as the Javanese. They shave their heads all round, leaving a bunch of hair on the middle

of the crown, which is twisted with a riband, and hangs down the back. Their dress consists in a long robe of nankeen, or thin silk, with wide sleeves, and under it they wear drawers of the same, which cover their legs.

In every house there is a niche, or place where the image of one of their *joostjes*, or idols, painted on Chinese paper, is hung up. Before it they keep one or more lamps always burning, as also a kind of incense, which is made into little thin tapers. This idol is generally depicted as an old man with a square cap upon his head, and a female, designed for his wife, by his side. About an hour's walk out of the city, just beyond Fort Ansjol, they have a temple, standing in a grove of cocoa-nut trees by the side of a rivulet, and in the midst of most pleasant scenery. The building is about twenty feet in length, and twelve or thirteen in breadth. The entrance is through a railing into a small area, and then into a hall, behind which is the sanctuary. In the middle, just within the door, is a large altar, on which tapers made of red wax are kept burning night and day. There is also an image of a lion richly gilt. In a niche behind the altar are representations of an old man and woman, both with crowns upon their heads, and about two feet in height, which are their idols; and as they look upon their *joostje* to be an evil spirit, they

continually supplicate him not to do them any harm. In their adorations they prostrate themselves before him, and endeavour to express the awe and reverence they entertain by striking their head continually against the ground.

They likewise consult their idol when they are about any important undertaking. This divination is done by means of two small longitudinal pieces of wood, flat on one side and round on the other. They hold these with the flat sides towards each other, and then letting them fall on the ground, augur of the effect of their prayers, and the good or bad result of their proposed enterprise, by the manner in which they lie, with the round or flat sides upwards. If the presage be favourable, they offer a wax candle to their god, which the priest, or bonze, who attends at the temple, immediately turns into ready money.

In this temple I saw a Chinese, who let these little sticks fall above twenty times before they promised him success: he seemed to be but very little pleased with these repeated evil prognostications, and shaking his head, at every time, with a most discontented look, he threw himself upon the ground, and thumped his head against it, till at last the omen proved agreeable to his wishes; and he then joyfully lighted a thick

wax candle, and placed it upon the altar of his *joestje*.

Besides this temple, the Chinese have several others, which are tolerated by the government; but it is worthy of observation, that whilst the practice of the most abominable idolatry is allowed, the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion is obstinately prohibited.

The Chinese are of a very lustful temper. They are accused of the most detestable violations of the laws of nature; and it is even said, that they keep swine in their houses, for purposes the most shameful and repugnant.

Their tombs, on which they expend a great deal of money, are partly built above, and partly under ground. They are arched over. The entrance, which is made like a door-way, is closed with a large stone, covered with engraved Chinese letters. They are to be seen in great numbers, about half an hour's walk from Batavia, on the road to Jaccatra.

They visit the graves of their ancestors and relations from time to time, strew them with odoriferous flowers; and when they depart, leave a few small pieces of silk or linen, before the entrance, and sometimes boiled rice, or other viaticum, which is speedily made away with at night.

The environs of Batavia are very pleasant, and

are almost every where intersected with rivulets, by which the circumjacent rice-plantations are inundated, and fertilized in the proper season.

There are five principal roads which lead from the city towards the country, and which are all planted with high and shady trees.

That which runs to the eastward, to Ansoet and the sea-coast, is laid along the side of a rivulet, the stream of which running down an imperceptible slope, is very slow, which makes it resemble the canals in Holland. Both sides of it are adorned with gardens; but they are beginning to be neglected, save one or two, belonging to the director-general.

At no great distance from the sea-shore, whither this road finally leads, is an oyster-bed; and on the beach stands a house of entertainment, which is resorted to by the Europeans, for the purpose of eating this shell-fish.

The second road has the appellation of the Mango-doa, from its having been formerly planted with a double row of mango-trees. This runs more south than the former one, and farther inland. Along this road are likewise many gardens; but they are not so splendid and pleasant as those which border and embellish the road to Jacatra; for there the finest picture which can be conceived, presents itself to the delighted eye; both with respect to the grandeur

of the buildings and the elegance of the grounds. Most of the houses belonging to them, have their fronts towards the road, and from the back rooms they have a prospect of the river of Jaccatra.

This road is nearly two hundred feet broad, and is closely planted with trees. I do not know that I ever beheld a more delightful avenue. It terminates at a small fort, which is called Jaccatra, situated about half a Dutch mile from Batavia; and, though the road is continued to Weltevreden, the country-seat of the governor-general, and beyond it farther into the country, it assumes on the other side of Jaccatra the name of Goenong Sari.

The fourth is called the Molenvliet, or Mill-drain, because part of the water of the great, or Jaccatra river, is diverted through a channel along this road, for the purpose of turning a powder-mill, which stands scarcely ten minutes walk from the city. The road leads along the canal, for full half a Dutch mile up the country, and is equally adorned on both sides, with handsome houses and pleasant gardens. It then proceeds to Tanabang, where a large market is held every Saturday, for all kinds of provisions which are brought thither from the interior.

The fifth road leads through the Chinese Camp, also along a river, to Fort Ankay, and is,

None of these roads, nor any of the streets in the city, are paved; the ground consists of a hard clay, which is made very smooth and plain; only in the city, along the sides of the streets, by the houses, are stone footpaths, of about three or four feet in breadth. The streets and canals are planted on each side with large trees; generally the *anophyllum*, *calophyllum*, and *calaba*, the *cassia*, *commune*, and some others which are still more rare.

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CHAPTER IV.

Government of Batavia.—Council of India.—Governor-General.—Director-General.—Counsellors of India.—Council of Justice.—Board of Scheepens.—Punishments.—Impalement.—Mucks.—Orphan-Chamber.—Opium-Company.—Chief of the Marine.—Commandant and Upper Controller of Equipment.—Vice-Commandant.—Military.—Militia.—Ranks and Precedency.—Sumptuary Laws.—Clergy.—Coins.—Weights.—Measures.

THE chief government of Batavia, and of all the possessions of the Dutch East India Company in Asia, is vested in the council of India, with the governor-general at their head.

This council consists, besides the director-general, of five ordinary counsellors, including the governor of the Cape of Good Hope, nine extraordinary counsellors, and two secretaries.

Five of the extraordinary counsellors are governors of the out-factories of the north-east coast of Java, Coromandel, Amboyna, Ceylon, and Macassar.

This council determines affairs of every kind, those which relate to the administration of jus-

tice, alone excepted. Yet in civil matters, an appeal may be made from the sentence of the council of justice, to the council of India.

All appointments and promotions to offices are effected by the council of India, not excepting that of the governor-general; but this must be confirmed by the assembly of seventeen, in the Netherlands. Ecclesiastical preferments, and the appointment of the ministers of justice, proceed immediately from the direction in Holland. In the council of India, the governor and director general, and the five ordinary counsellors, alone, conclude upon most matters which are brought before them; the other nine members are properly only assessors, who may give their advice, but have no votes, except on war or peace with the Indians, pardoning criminals condemned to death, in the election of a governor-general, and in a few other important points. The power and influence of this body in the Indies, are unbounded. It is the representative of the state and of the Company, and millions of Indians are subject to its sway. Kings and princes are crowned and dethroned by its mandates. "I have been witness," says Ary Huysers, "to the deposition of two powerful kings of the Moluccas, and the hereditary prince of Tidore. One of these died miserably in a little village, near the place of my residence. I saw

the venerable old man before his death, he was seventy-two years of age. When I expressed my commiseration at the deep humiliation he had undergone, he answered with a sigh, in the Malay language, pointing to heaven, 'It is the will of God.' "

The authority of the governor-general is almost unbounded; and although he is obliged to give cognizance to the council, and consult them on some matters, he possesses a most arbitrary and independent power in all; for there are few or no members of the council, who do not stand in need of his good offices, in some instance or other; for example, in order to obtain lucrative employments for their relations or favourites*; and if this be not sufficient to make them obey the nod of the governor, he is not destitute of the means of tormenting them in every way, under various pretences; nay, of

* By the second article of the oath taken by the governor-general and counsellors of India, on their appointment, they engage "never to receive any gifts or presents, directly or indirectly, from any one under their authority; neither in respect, or in the hope or expectation thereof, nor of any advantage, favour, or other private consideration, either of relationship, friendship, or otherwise, to appoint or cause to be appointed, any other individual to an office, place, or station, than such as they believe and find to possess the most experience, the most integrity, the most fidelity, and the most ability for the same."—So much do men regard oaths!

sending them prisoners to Europe; as was done with respect to MM. Van Imhoff, de Haaze, and Van Schinnen, in the year 1740, by the governor-general Valkenier *. As, therefore, those who are immediately next to him in rank, depend upon, and stand in awe of him, it follows that the inferior servants of the Company feel still deeper reverence, and tremble before him, as in the presence of one upon whose arbitrary will and power their happiness or misery wholly depends.

The governor-general usually resides at his country-seat, called Weltevreeden, about an hour and a quarter's walk from Batavia, and which is a superb mansion.

He gives public audience here every Monday and Thursday; and on Tuesdays and Fridays at another seat, situated nearer to the city, on the Jaccatra road. On the other days of the week he is inaccessible to every body, and cannot be spoken to unless on affairs of the greatest importance and urgency. Nobody goes thither without having some business; for it would be taken extremely ill if any one were to pay a visit

* He was the personal enemy of those gentlemen, and so tyrannically abused his authority, that when the council refused to sanction this arbitrary measure, he surrounded the council-table with a body of armed men, and thus constrained them to assent to his wishes.

of mere ceremony. The time of audience is from six o'clock in the morning till eight. Every one waits in the open air, in the court before the house, till he is called in by one of the body-guards.

When the governor rides out, he is always accompanied by some of his horse-guards. An officer and two trumpeters precede his approach, and every person who meets him, and happens to be in a carriage, must stop and step out of it till he has ridden by. This humiliating homage, as well as that paid to the *edele heeren*, or counsellors of India, as will be presently noticed, are equally required from foreigners. These ceremonies are generally complied with by the captains of Indiamen, and other trading ships: "but," says Captain Carteret, who was at Batavia in 1768, "having the honour to bear his majesty's commission, I did not think myself at liberty to pay to a Dutch governor any homage which is not paid to my own sovereign: it is, however, constantly required of the king's officers; and two or three days after my arrival, the landlord of the hotel where I lodged told me, he had been ordered by the *shebandar* to let me know that my carriage, as well as others, must stop if I should meet the governor, or any of the council; but I desired him to acquaint the *shebandar* that I could not consent to perform

any such ceremony; and upon his intimating something about the black men with sticks, who precede the approach of these great men, I told him, that if any insult should be offered me, I knew how to defend myself, and would take care to be upon my guard; at the same time pointing to my pistols, which happened to lie upon the table: upon this he went away, and about three hours afterwards returned, and told me he had orders from the governor to acquaint me that I might do as I pleased." Since that time the English officers have never been required to comply with this degrading custom; yet when they have been in an hired carriage, nothing has deterred the coachman from stopping and alighting, in honour of the Dutch grandee, but the most peremptory menace of immediate death.

A company of dragoons always mount guard at Weltevreden. He has besides some halberdiers, who are employed in carrying messages and commands, and who always attend on the governor's person wherever he goes. They are dressed in short coats of scarlet cloth, richly laced with gold, and are next in rank to the junior ensign in the Company's service.

When his excellency entered the church, all persons, both men and women, the counsellors

of India not excepted, stood up in token of respect; but this etiquette was abolished upon the accession of R. de Klerk to the government in 1777. His lady receives the same honours, and is equally escorted by a party of horse-guards when she rides out.

The director-general, who is the eldest counsellor of India, is the next in rank. The direction and control over the trade of the Company, throughout all India, and to Europe, together with every thing relative to it, is exclusively intrusted to him. The governor-general does not in the least meddle in these matters if the director has ability for it.

Next in order are the ordinary and extraordinary counsellors of India. Those who reside at Batavia are also usually presidents of different boards or courts. Every counsellor of India has likewise the correspondence with one of the out-factories allotted to him; the general himself has that of one or two settlements; and no one is excused in this respect but the director, on account of his multifarious other avocations.

Although every member lies under this obligation, there are but few who take the trouble upon themselves; most of them transfer it to persons of a lower rank.

When a counsellor of India, or his lady, enters a church, all the men stand up, in the

same manner as for the governor-general, but the women remain sitting. On meeting one of them in a carriage, every body must stop, rise up, and bow to them, and stay till they are gone by. When they go out, they have two slaves, who run before them with sticks: other people are allowed but one.

There are always two secretaries of the government, who take down in writing the propositions, or resolutions, which have been discussed in the council, and lay them before the governor-general when the assembly breaks up. He examines them, and gives directions what is to be made into decrees, and what is only to be inserted in the journals. The resolutions being then drawn up in writing by the first secretary, are again presented to the governor, who makes such alterations in them as he thinks fit; and at the ensuing session of the council they are read over and approved.

The salary of a counsellor of India is a thousand rixdollars per annum; besides which he has six hundred rixdollars for house-rent, seven hundred for his trouble in signing dispatches, three hundred towards providing his table, together with a considerable allowance of provisions from the Company's warehouses. Taking every thing together, he can reckon upon a yearly income of four thousand rixdollars, 875*l*.

Besides the above, the first secretary has the emoluments of making out the commissions, which do not amount to a trifle, especially when many appointments of governors, directors, or commandants occur, who pay liberally for their commissions; sometimes giving fees to the amount of a thousand rixdollars. None of them can save any thing from this income, which they amply want for their household expenses; for which reason they are generally favoured with the government or directorship of an out-settlement, after they have been three or four years in the council.

The private secretary of the governor-general is usually promoted to be secretary to the council, upon a vacancy.

Thirty-six, or forty, clerks are daily employed in the secretary's office, which is next to the government-house, in the castle. They have for the most part the rank of junior merchants; nevertheless they are not able to earn more than a bare subsistence.

Justice is administered to the servants of the Company by an assembly, having the appellation of council of justice. This body is by its constitution independent of the council of India; but, as the members of which it consists have many wants and wishes to be fulfilled, they likewise endeavour to be near the fountain-head

of promotion and advantage; and, as well as all others, follow the inclinations of their sovereign ruler in all cases that are brought before them. This council consists of a president, who ranks next to the junior counsellor of India, eight ordinary members, and two adjutors, taken from the Company's servants. Their salary is no more than two thousand two hundred rixdollars; which is scarcely sufficient for the support of their establishments: they are besides obliged to serve the office of counsellor of justice, for the space of ten years, before they may be candidates for any other office.

There are two fiscals belonging to this council, one of which bears the title of advocate-fiscal, or attorney-general, but whose office relates only to the persons in the Company's service. The other is styled the water-fiscal, through whom all indiotments relative to navigation are made. This was formerly one of the most lucrative employments of all India, and it is still very advantageous, though not so much as formerly, because the private trade is not so flourishing as it was in former times. The methods by which fortunes were made in this office will easily be conceived by seafaring people. The secretary of the council of justice has the rank of merchant. The citizens and free merchants of Batavia, who are not in the Company's service, are amer-

nable to a separate municipal court of justice, being what is called the board of *scheepens*, or aldermen, who are eight in number, with a president, who is a member of the council of India.

To this court belong a sheriff, for the matters which relate to the city, and a constable of the territory of Batavia; both of which are very lucrative offices, and are never bestowed but on great favourites.

The punishments inflicted at Batavia are excessively severe, especially such as fall upon the Indians. Impalement is the chief and most terrible.

In the year 1769 there was an execution of this kind, of a Macasser slave who had murdered his master. The criminal was led in the morning to the place of execution, the grass plot, and laid upon his belly, being held by four men. The executioner made a transverse incision at the lower part of the body, as far as the *os sacrum*; he then introduced the sharp point of the spike, which was about six feet long, and made of polished iron, into the wound, so that it passed between the back bone and the skin. Two men drove it forcibly up along the spine, while the executioner held the end, and gave it a proper direction, till it came out between the neck and shoulders. The lower end

was next put into a wooden post and rivetted fast, and the sufferer was lifted up, thus impaled, and the post stuck in the ground. At the top of the post, about ten feet from the ground, there was a kind of little bench, upon which the body rested.

The insensibility or fortitude of the miserable sufferer was incredible. He did not utter the least complaint, except when the spike was rivetted into the pillar; the hammering and shaking occasioned by it, seemed to be intolerable to him, and he then bellowed out for pain; and likewise again when he was lifted up and set in the ground. He sat in this dreadful situation till death put an end to his torments, which fortunately happened the next day about three o'clock in the afternoon. He owed this speedy termination of his misery to a light shower of rain, which continued for about an hour, and he gave up the ghost half an hour afterwards.

There have been instances at Batavia, of criminals who have been impaled in the dry season, and have remained alive for eight or more days without any food or drink, which is prevented to be given them by a guard who is stationed at the place of execution for that purpose. None of the vital parts are injured by impalement, which makes the punishment the more cruel and intolerable; but as soon as any water gets into the

wound, it mortifies and occasions a gangrene, which directly attacks the more noble parts, and brings on death almost immediately.

This miserable sufferer continually complained of intolerable thirst, which is peculiarly incident to this terrible punishment. The criminals are exposed, during the whole day, to the burning rays of the sun, and are unceasingly tormented by numerous stinging insects.

About three hours before he died he was in conversation with the bystanders, relating to them the manner in which he had murdered his good master, and expressing his repentance of the crime he had committed. This he did with great composure; yet an instant afterwards he burst out in the most bitter complaints of unquenchable thirst, and raved for drink, while no one was allowed to alleviate, by a single drop of water, the excruciating torments he endured.

This kind of punishment, notwithstanding its great cruelty, is asserted by many to be of the highest necessity, in a country where a treacherous race of men, unrestrained by any moral principles from the perpetration of the greatest crimes, perform the daily menial and household services of the Europeans. The slaves who come from the island of Celebes, and especially the Bongi-nest, are guilty of the most horrid murders:

most of those who run *mucks* belong to that nation.

These acts of indiscriminate murder are called *mucks*, because the perpetrators of them, during their frenzy, continually cry out *amok, amok*, which signifies *kill, kill*. When, by swallowing much opium, or by other means, they are raised to a pitch of desperate fury, they sally out with a knife or other weapon in their hand, and kill, without distinction of sex, rank, or age, whoever they meet in the streets of Batavia; and proceed in this way till they are either shot or taken prisoners. Their intoxication continues till death; they run in upon the arms opposed to them, and often kill their opponents even after they are themselves mortally wounded.

In order, if possible, to take them alive, the officers of justice are provided with a pole ten or twelve feet in length, at the end of which is a kind of fork, made of two pieces of wood, three feet long, stuck on the inside with sharp iron spikes; this is held before the wretched object of pursuit, who runs into it, and is thus taken.

If he happen to be mortally wounded, he is immediately broken alive upon the wheel, without any form of trial, in the presence of two or three of the counsellors of justice.

It is remarkable, that at Batavia, where the assassins, when taken alive, are broken on the

wheel, with every aggravation of punishment which the most rigorous justice can inflict, the *mucks* yet happen in great frequency; whilst at Bencoolen, where they are executed in the most simple and expeditious manner, the offence is extremely rare. At Batavia, if an officer take one of these *snobs*, or mohawks, as they have been called by an easy corruption, alive, his reward is very considerable; but if he kill them, nothing is added to his usual pay: such is the fury of their desperation, that three out of four are of necessity destroyed in the attempt to secure them.

The orphan-chamber at Batavia serves at the same time for the whole of the Dutch possessions in India. Every out-factory has, it is true, its own orphan-chamber, but they must render account of their administration to that of the capital, and remit the effects which are not claimed, or the heirs to which do not reside on the spot. That of Batavia corresponds with the orphan-chambers of the different cities where the chambers of the East India Company are established. These *weeskamers*, or orphan-chambers, are establishments which are dispersed throughout the United Provinces for the administration of the estates of all who die intestate, and the apportionment of them among the heirs.

The board consists of a president, who is a

counsellor of India, and six *regents*, or regents, who are appointed by the council of India, with a secretary, and a sworn clerk. The capital stock remaining in the hands of the orphan-chamber amounted, in the year 1766, to about 220,000 sterling.

There are several other courts, or boards, as the commissioners of dikes or sluices, of bankruptcies, a court of common pleas, a board of control over marriages, and others.

A company was established at Batavia, during the government of Baron Van Imhoff, for the opium-trade, which is still in existence. The stock is divided into shares of two thousand six-dollars each, on which half only has hitherto been furnished, but the remainder may be required at any time. The dividends are unequal, yet very large, and the shares sell at a high premium; they are generally in the hands of the counsellors of India. The management of this trade is intrusted to a director, who is a counsellor of India, two acting proprietors, a cashier, and a book-keeper.

Every chest of opium stands the Company in two hundred and fifty, and sometimes three hundred rix-dollars, and is delivered to the society for five hundred, and sometimes more. On the other hand, the Company is bound to sell this drug to no other. The retail of it produces large

profits, as eight or nine hundred rixdollars, and more, are made of every chest. The gain would be more considerable, if this monopoly could be strictly enforced for the whole quantity of opium consumed in the eastern parts of India; but, notwithstanding the Company have interdicted this trade to their servants, and especially to the seamen, upon pain of death, and have prohibited the importation into any of their possessions, by foreign nations, upon pain of confiscation of ship and cargo, yet very great violations of these laws are daily practised, on account of the important profit it affords; by which the society is much injured, although on their part they do all they can, on the arrival of ships from the Ganges, to discover if any contraband opium be on board: but those who engage in this illicit trade, take too many precautions to incur much risk of detection. The smuggling trade which the English carry on in this article in the eastern islands, and by way of Malacca, is also extremely detrimental to the society.

When any ships arrive in the road of Batavia, from places whence contraband goods can be brought, two of the members of the council of justice, with the water-fiscal, and the provost-marshal, are dispatched the next day, in order to examine whether any prohibited wares are on board; the examination, however, is only per-

sonally done by the last-named officer, who reports the result to the others.

A chief of the marine, or port-admiral, has been established at Batavia since the year 1762. His rank is equal to that of a counsellor of India, but he takes place after the junior counsellor. He has the same privileges; has equally the style of *edde heer*, and may be present at their assemblies; but cannot deliver his sentiments, except in matters relative to his department. His chief occupation consists in superintending the repairs of ships, examining the ships' journals, signing sailing-orders, and warrants for delivery of stores to the ships; and further, in keeping whatever relates to maritime affairs in due order.

Upon this officer, follows the commandant and upper comptroller of equipment, to whom the management of the stores is confided. He likewise superintends the discharge, loading, manning, and furnishing the ships with provisions. This is one of the most lucrative, but, at the same time, most troublesome employments at Batavia; since he has had a head placed over him, however, the emolument has greatly decreased, while the fatigue remains in its full extent. He is assisted by a vice-commandant, and under comptroller of equipment, who ranks as post-captain, to whom he generally leaves the superintendence of loading and unloading the

ships, and who supplies his place in case of sickness or absence.

The Company have granted to these three officers as an emolument, the privilege of shipping some tons of goods, not contraband, by every ship which sails to India, according to the size of the vessels; and if the ships' captains do not buy up these goods at a very high rate, they are sure to find but scanty opportunities of disposing of their own.

The commanders of vessels, with their lieutenants and mates, rank next; the first equal with merchants: in 1770 there were thirty-nine of them who resided there, or commanded country-ships.

The whole of the Dutch land-forces in India are under the command of one head, who was formerly styled captain-major, but has now the title of brigadier, and ranks after the chief of the marine. He has two lieutenant-colonels under him; one of whom has the command of the military at Batavia, and the other at Ceylon; there are, besides, six majors, two of whom reside at Ceylon, one on the Malabar coast, one at the Cape of Good Hope, and two at Batavia: one of the last is also chief of the artillery.

There is a regiment of dragoons, which serve as a body-guard to the governor-general. The

infantry are divided into two battalions, and are quartered in the city and suburbs.

Besides these regular troops, there are two companies called *permists*, consisting of merchants, junior merchants, book-keepers, and assistants. One company is called *permists* of the castle; the other, *permists* of the city. The former is commanded by the first secretary of the government, and the latter by one of the senior merchants of the castle. They are reviewed once a year by the governor-general and council; and each company has a distinct uniform.

The other Company's servants are also formed into two companies; one consists of the marines and others belonging to the admiralty-wharf, with the commandant and upper comptroller of equipment at their head; the other, of the workmen of the *ambagts kwartier*, with the *fabrick*. Independently of these, all the free inhabitants, or citizens, are enrolled into two companies of horse and of foot, which are commanded by a counsellor of India, as colonel, and mount guard every night at the town-hall.

All the practitioners of surgery are subordinate to a chief, who has the control over all the surgeons and surgeon's mates as well on board ships as in the hospitals; and who has the rank of senior merchant.

Every individual is as stiff and formal, and is

as feelingly alive to every infraction of his privileges in respect to precedence, especially in public companies, as if his happiness or misery depended wholly upon their due observance. Nothing is more particularly attended to at entertainments, by the master of the house, than the seating of every guest, and drinking their healths, in the exact order of precedence. The ladies most tenaciously insist upon every prerogative attached to the station of their husbands: some of them, if they conceive themselves placed lower than they are entitled to, will sit in sullen and proud silence during the whole entertainment. It does not unfrequently happen, that two ladies of equal rank meeting each other in their carriages, neither will give way, though they may be forced to remain for hours in the street.

To provide against these disputes on the subject of precedence, the respective ranks of all the Company's servants were ascertained by a resolution of government, which was renewed in 1764: and a regulation respecting the pomp of funeral processions was added to it, which is still in force. Regulations were likewise introduced with respect to dress during the government of the governor-general Mossel; by which persons of a certain condition were alone allowed to wear embroidered or laced clothes; but this is

little attended to at present, for almost every one who chooses dresses in this forbidden finery. Velvet coats are however not common, and they are absolutely prohibited to be worn by any under the rank of senior merchant. The act by which these regulations were established, is composed of a hundred and thirty-one articles. It enters into the most minute detail respecting the carriages, horses, chairs, servants, dress, &c. of the Company's servants, and exhibits a strange picture of meanness and illiberality. By the 8th article, little chaises for children, drawn by the hand, must not be gilt or painted, but in the exact proportion of the rank of the parents. By the 31st no one inferior to a merchant shall use a parasol or umbrella in the neighbourhood of the castle, except when it rains. Ladies whose husbands are below the rank of counsellors of India, may not wear at one time jewels of greater value than six thousand rixdollars; wives of senior merchants are limited to four thousand, others to three and one thousand. Article 49th permits ladies of the higher ranks to go abroad with three female attendants, who may wear "ear-rings of single middle-sized diamonds, gold hair-pins, petticoats of gold, silver, or silk cloth, jackets of gold or silver gauze, chains of gold, or beads and girdles of gold, but neither pearls nor diamonds, nor any other kind of jewels, in

the hair." Wives of inferior merchants may have two, and ladies in an inferior station one maid, who may wear "ear-rings of small diamonds, gold hair-pins, a jacket of fine linen, and a chintz petticoat, but no gold nor silver stuffs, nor silks, jewels, real or artificial pearls, nor any ornaments of gold." By article 65, none but persons of the highest rank are allowed to have trumpets, clarions, or drums among the music with which it is customary to entertain guests during dinner. There is a wise recommendation in the 83d article, to the officers of the Company in Bengal, not to surpass their predecessors in pomp of dress nor appearance, and especially not the governors or chiefs of the other European settlements. Perhaps the 110th article is the most curious of all. It allows to the director at Surat, when he goes in state, among other things, four fans, made according to the fashion of the country, with the feathers of birds of paradise, and cow-hair, with golden cases and handles. It likewise fixes the duties to be paid upon all carriages, horses, &c. It is worthy of observation, that those upon carriages increase downwards from the higher to the lower ranks: members of the government pay 50 rix-dollars per annum; captains of the military, merchants, &c. 100; junior merchants, &c. 125; book-keepers, &c. 180; citizens of no special rank,

and native inhabitants of consideration, 200; and the common natives, 300 rixdollars for keeping carriages. Fines are the penalties attached to the infraction of almost all these sumptuary regulations.

There may be twelve clergymen of the reformed religion at Batavia, six of whom preach in the Dutch, four in the Portuguese, and two in the Malay languages; likewise three Lutheran ministers, who preach in Dutch.

Service is performed every Sunday in the above languages; in Dutch at two churches in the morning, but only at one in the afternoon.

An examination of catechumens takes place every Wednesday evening. So that, upon the whole, these reverend gentlemen need not complain, when their number is complete, of too severe labour. The morning service commences at half past eight o'clock, and is generally over by ten, when the greatest heat of the day begins.

Ecclesiastical disputes are never heard of here. The Company's government, who are extremely anxious to avoid every thing which could interrupt the public tranquillity, would soon terminate the quarrel by the summary argument of force.

It is much to be wished that upright and learned clergymen were alone sent out; yet that

this is not always the case; appears from a resolution of the government in the year 1768, earnestly requesting that the assembly of seventeen would dispatch some ministers of the Gospel, possessed of virtue and learning, to Batavia, with an augmentation of salaries and emoluments. Their salary was then one thousand eight hundred guilders per annum; but with their allowances for house-rent, board, &c. they could reckon upon three thousand, about 275*l.*; which is certainly not enough to live upon at Batavia with a family, and on an equal footing with the senior merchants.

Once in every year, or sometimes only once in two years, one of the clergymen of Batavia goes upon a visitation to the Company's possessions on the west coast of Sumatra. Some of them well know how to turn such occasions to the advantage of their pockets, by taking with them as much merchandise as they can find room for.

The coins current at Batavia are the milled Dutch gold ducat, worth six guilders and twelve stivers; the Japan gold *coupangs*, of which the old go for twenty-four guilders, and the new for fourteen guilders and eight stivers; the Spanish dollar or piaster rises and falls according to the quantity in circulation, or the degree of demand; its value is generally between sixty-three and sixty-six stivers: the milled silver ducatoon,

which is the current coin of the Company through-
out their possessions, except on the continent of In-
dia; its proportionate value according to the other
coins is sixty-six stivers; but in Indian money
it goes for eighty, at which rate it is current at
Batavia; at the Cape of Good Hope it is worth
seventy-two, and at Cochin seventy-five stivers:
the unmilled ducatoon is two stivers less at Ba-
tavia: the milled Batavia rupee, called the silver
derham d'Java, which was formerly coined at
Batavia, is made good in the Company's books at
twenty-four stivers, and in circulation it is taken
at thirty; it is the only rupee which goes for so
much at Batavia, and is current at Amboyna,
Banda, Ternate, Macasser, and Malacca, at the
same rate, but on the coast of Malabar it is eight
per cent. less in value than the Surat rupee: all
other rupees generally go for twenty-seven
stivers; the Persian rupees are the most current;
there are also half and quarter rupees in circula-
tion. The smaller coins are skillings, *dubbeltjes*,
or twopenny-pieces, and doits: there are two
sorts of skillings; the old, which are current in
Holland, go for six stivers, but the new, here
called ship skillings, are worth seven and a half:
twopenny-pieces which are old and worn go for
two stivers, but the new for two stivers and a
half: no other doits are taken in change than
those stamped with the mark of the East-India

Company, and these are equal to a farthing. The rixdollar, which is the money used for accounts in private trade, is worth forty-eight stivers; thus, three new or milled ducatoons are equal to five rixdollars*.

Most merchants' goods are calculated at Batavia by *picols* of one hundred and twenty-five pounds, Amsterdam weight†; and these are subdivided into a hundred *oells*, each weighing one pound and a quarter.

Rice and other grain is measured by *coyangs*, which differ in weight. On the receipt of the rice by the Company at Java, they must weigh three thousand five hundred pounds. They are shipped at Batavia for three thousand four hun-

* The following is a table of the value in sterling money of the above coins at the par exchange of *f.* 11 per pound; viz.

	<i>f.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>c.</i>
The old Japan gold coupang	24	0	0	4
The new ditto	14	8	0	2
The milled Dutch ducat	6	12	0	12
The silver milled ducatoon	4	0	0	7
The unmilled ditto	3	18	0	7
The Spanish dollar	from 3	3	0	5
	to 3	6	0	6
The rixdollar	2	8	0	4
The Batavia rupee	1	10	0	2
Other rupees, about	1	7	0	2

† Ricaud, in his *Traité de Commerce*, makes the *picol* at Batavia equal to 118 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Amsterdam weight.

dred, and landed there for three thousand three hundred. The warehouse-keepers dispatch them for the out-factories for three thousand two hundred, where they are unloaden for three thousand one hundred; and finally, they are delivered for consumption for three thousand pounds at the out-factories, namely, those which receive their rice from Batavia, as Malacca, the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, the western coast of Sumatra, &c.: thus every *coyang* loses five hundred pounds in weight. This deficiency is an allowance which is made to the Company's servants, who respectively have the management of the rice; for instance, for every 3300 received at Batavia, the warehouse-keepers are only bound to deliver 3200, &c. Out of this difference they must make good all loss by dust, &c. and what they can keep over is a perquisite to themselves. Similar allowances are made on most of the goods in which the Company trade, and they are all fixed by a resolution of the council. They form a very material part of the income of the Company's servants; who, however, are bound to sell again to the Company what they have gained in this way, of all spices, coffee, saltpetre, japan, copper, and tin; the other articles they are allowed to dispose of as they please.

Sugar is taken by *canassers* of three *picols*, or

CHAPTER V.

European Mode of Living at Batavia.—Women.—Their early Marriages.—Complexion.—Temper.—Manners.—Education of Children.—Bathing.—Excessive Jealousy of the Indian Ladies.—Cruelty to their female Slaves.—Short Widowhoods.—Dress.—Diversions.—Carriages.—Norimons.—Carts drawn by Buffaloes.—Management of the Company's Trade.—Senior Merchants of the Castle.—Warehouse-keepers.—Commissaries at the Warehouses.—Exportation of Gold and Silver to India.—Decay of Batavia by Increase of private Trade.—Province of Jaccatra.—Imports at Batavia.—Islands of Onrust—De Kuiper—Purmerend—Edam.

EUROPEANS, whether Dutch or of any other nation, and in whatever station they are, live at Batavia nearly in the same manner. In the morning, at five o'clock, or earlier, when the day breaks, they get up. Many of them then sit at their doors; others stay in the house, with nothing but a light gown, in which they sleep, thrown over their naked limbs; they breakfast upon coffee or tea; afterwards dress, and go about whatever business they may have. Almost all who have any place or employment must be

at their proper station by eight o'clock, and they remain at work till eleven, or half past. They dine at twelve; take an afternoon's nap till four, and attend to their business till six, or take a ride out of the city in a carriage. At six o'clock they assemble in companies, and play or converse till nine, when they return home: whoever chooses to stay supper is welcome; and eleven o'clock is the usual hour of retiring to rest. Convivial gaiety seems to reign among them, and yet it is mixed with a kind of suspicious reserve, which pervades all stations and all companies, and is the consequence of an arbitrary and jealous government. The least word which may be wrested to an evil meaning, may bring on very serious consequences, if it reach the ears of the person aggrieved, either in fact, or in imagination. Many people assert, that they would not confide in their own brothers in this country.

No women are present at these assemblies; they have their own separate companies.

Married men neither take much concern, nor show much regard, for their wives. They seldom converse with them, at least on useful subjects, or on such as concern society. After having been married for years, the ladies are often, therefore, as ignorant of the world and of manners, as upon their wedding-day. It is not

that they have no capacity to learn, but the men have no inclination to teach.

The men generally dress in the Dutch fashion, and often wear black.

As soon as you enter a house, where you intend to stop for an hour or more, you are desired by the master to make yourself comfortable, by taking off some of your clothes, &c. This is done by laying aside the sword, pulling off the coat and wig, for most men wear wigs here, and substituting for the latter a little white night-cap, which is generally carried in the pocket for that purpose.

When they go out on foot, they are attended by a slave, who carries a sun-shade, *sambree* or *payang*, over their heads; but whoever is lower in rank than a junior merchant may not have a slave behind him, but must carry the *sambree* himself.

Most of the white women at Batavia are born in the Indies. Those who come from Europe at a marriageable age are very few. They are either the offspring of European mothers, or of oriental female slaves, who having first been mistresses to Europeans, have afterwards been married to them, and been converted to Christianity, or at least have assumed the name of Christians. The children of these marriages may be known to the third and

fourth generation, especially by the eyes, which are much smaller than in the unmixed progeny of Europeans.

There are likewise children who are the offspring of Portuguese; but these never become entirely white.

Children born in the Indies are nicknamed *liptaps* by the Europeans, although both parents may have come from Europe.

Girls are commonly marriageable at twelve or thirteen years of age, and sometimes younger. It seldom happens, if they are but tolerably handsome, have any money or expectations, or are related to people in power, that they are unmarried after that age.

As they marry while they are yet children, it may easily be conceived, that they do not possess those requisites which enable a woman to manage a family with propriety. Many of them can neither read nor write, nor possess any ideas of religion, of morality, nor of social intercourse.

Being married so young, they seldom bear many children, and are old women at thirty years of age. Women of fifty, in Europe, look younger and fresher than those of thirty at Batavia. They are in general of a very delicate make, and of an extremely fair complexion; but the tints of vermilion which embellish our

northern ladies, are wholly banished their cheeks; the skin of their face and hands is of the most deadly pale white. Beauties must not be sought amongst them; the handsomest would scarcely be thought middling in Europe.

They have very supple joints, and can turn their fingers, hands, and arms, in almost every direction; but this they have in common with the women in the West Indies, and in other tropical climates.

They are commonly of a listless and lazy temper, which is chiefly to be ascribed to their education, and the number of slaves of both sexes they always have to wait upon them.

They rise about half past seven or eight o'clock in the morning; spend the forenoon in playing and toying with their female slaves, who are never absent, and in laughing and talking with them, while a few moments afterwards they will have the poor creatures whipped unmercifully for the merest trifle. They loll in a loose and airy dress upon a sofa, or sit upon a low stool, or upon the ground, with their legs crossed under them. They chew pinang, or betel, with which custom all the Indian women are infatuated; they likewise masticate the Java tobacco, which makes their spittle of a crimson colour; and when they have done it long they get a black border along their lips, their teeth become

black, and their mouths very disagreeable, though it is pretended that this custom purifies the mouth, and is a preservative against the tooth-ache.

As the Indian women are not deficient in understanding, they would become very useful members of society, endearing wives, and good mothers, if they were but kept from familiarity with the slaves in their infancy, and educated under the immediate eye of their parents, who should be assiduous to inculcate in their tender minds the principles of true morality and polished manners. But, alas! the parents are far from taking such a burdensome task upon themselves. As soon as the child is born they abandon it to the care of a female slave, who generally suckles and rears it till it attains the age of nine or ten years. These nurses are often but one remove above a brute, in point of intellect; and the little innocents imbibe with their milk all the prejudices and superstitious notions which disgrace the minds of their attendants, and which are never eradicated during the remainder of their lives.

They are remarkably fond of bathing and ablutions, and make use for this purpose of a large tub, which holds three hogsheads of water, and in which they immerse their whole body at least twice a week. Some do this in the morn-

ing in one of the running streams out of the city.

In common with most of the women in India, they cherish a most excessive jealousy of their husbands, and of their female slaves. If they discover the smallest familiarity between them, they set no bounds to their thirst of revenge against these poor bondswomen, who in most cases have not dared to resist the will of their masters, from fear of ill-treatment.

They torture them in various ways; they have them whipped with rods, and beaten with rattans, till they sink down nearly exhausted; among other methods of tormenting them, they make the poor girls sit before them in such a posture that they can pinch them with their toes in a certain sensible part, which is the peculiar object of their vengeance, with such cruel ingenuity that they faint away by excess of pain.

Instances of the most refined cruelty practised upon these wretched victims of jealousy, by Indian women, and which have been related by witnesses worthy of belief, have been recited, but they are repugnant to every feeling of humanity, and surpass the usual bounds of credibility.

Having thus satiated their anger upon their slaves, their next object is to take equal revenge

upon their husbands, which they do in a manner less cruel and more pleasant to themselves.

The warmth of the climate, which influences strongly upon their constitutions, together with the dissolute lives of the men before marriage, are the causes of much wantonness and dissipation among the women.

Marriages are always made at Batavia on Sundays, yet the bride never goes abroad before the following Wednesday evening, when she attends divine service; to appear sooner in public, would be a violation of the rules of decorum.

As soon as a woman becomes a widow, and the body of her husband is interred, which is generally done the day after his decease, if rich she has immediately a number of suitors; but the laws do not allow a re-marriage till the expiration of three weeks.

Their dress is very light and airy; they have a piece of cotton cloth wrapped round the body, and fastened under the arms, next to the skin; over it is a shift, a jacket, and a chintz petticoat; which is all covered by a long gown or *kabay*, which hangs loose; the sleeves come down to the wrists, where they are fastened close with six or seven little gold or diamond buttons. When they go out in

state, or to a company where they expect the presence of a lady or a counsellor of India, they put on a very fine muslin *kabay*, made like the other, but hanging down to the feet, while the first only reaches to the knees. When they invite each other, it is always subject to the condition of coming with the long or the short *kabay*. They all go with their heads uncovered: the hair, which is perfectly black, is worn in a wreath, fastened with gold and diamond hair-pins, called a *condé*: in the front, and on the sides of the head, it is stroked smooth, and rendered shining, by being anointed with coëbanut-oil. They are particularly attentive to this head-dress; and the girl who can dress their hair most to their liking, is their chief favourite among their slaves.

English travellers who have visited Batavia, have all admired the taste of this head-dress, which they think inexpressibly elegant. When the ladies pay their evening visits to each other, the wreath of hair is surrounded by a chaplet of flowers, in which the grateful fragrance of the *nyctanthes sambac*, or Arabian jasmine, unites with the modest sweetness of the *polyanthes tuberosa*, and is beautifully intermixed with the golden stars of the *minuosa elegans*.

On Sundays they sometimes dress in the European style, with stays and other fashionable

incumbrances, which however they do not like, being accustomed to a dress so much looser and more pleasant in this torrid climate.

When a lady goes out, she has usually four or more female attendants, one of whom bears her hatel-box. They are sumptuously adorned with gold and silver; and this ostentatious luxury the Indian ladies carry to a very great excess.

They seldom mix in company with the men, except at marriage-feasts.

The title of My Lady is given exclusively to the wives of counsellors of India.

The ladies are very fond of riding through the streets of the town in their carriages in the evening. Formerly, when Batavia was more flourishing, they were accompanied by musicians; but this is no more customary at present than rowing through the canals which intersect the town in little pleasure-boats; going upon these parties, which were enlivened by music, was called *omgibayen*.

There was a theatre at Batavia, but it was soon given up.

The coaches are small, and light. Glass windows in coaches are alone allowed to the members of the government, who have also the privilege of painting or gilding their carriages agreeably to their own taste.

A slave must run before every wheel-carriage.

with a stick in his hand, in order to give notice of its proximity, and prevent all accidents; for the streets not being paved, the approach of the carriage cannot be easily perceived.

Most people hire a carriage, at the rate of sixty rixdollars a month, of the licensed stable-keepers, by whom the duty is paid. Counsellors of India, and a few others of the Company's upper servants, are exempted from it.

Sedan-chairs are not in use here. The ladies, however, sometimes employ a conveyance somewhat like them, called a *norimon*. This is a kind of box, narrower at the top than the bottom, and carried by a thick bamboo pole, fastened over the top. They sit in it with their legs crossed under them, and have then just room enough to sit upright, without being seen.

The carts for the conveyance of goods inland, drawn by buffaloes, are of a very simple and clumsy construction. A long pole, which serves for a beam, goes through an axletree, which turns two wheels, or rather round blocks like quoits, sawn out of the trunk of a thick tree, about four feet in diameter, and having a round hole in the centre, through which the end of the axletree is inserted. At the further end of the beam is a cross piece of wood of four or five feet in length, with four stout pegs, and which is laid upon the shoulders of two buffa-

loes, in the manner of a yoke, so that their necks fit between the pegs; and this serves both to bear the weight of the cart and to drag it along. The carts themselves are small, and cannot carry a great weight; they have a covering of leaves, to preserve the load from the rain.

The trade of the Company is managed by the director-general. The burdensome duty of his office is greatly alleviated by two assistants, who are senior merchants of the castle. Their business consists chiefly in superintending the housing in the Company's warehouses of all goods which are brought to Batavia by their ships, and the delivery of them again: all returns on this score are first made to them. The senior of them has the superintendence of all the goods which arrive, and the other over those dispatched. Deliveries are made on warrants signed by one of them. All papers relative to trade, which are received from the out-factories, are examined by them, and they report their contents to the director. They are both likewise administrators of the great treasury, but derive little emolument from it. Their office is one of the most troublesome of any in the Company's civil service at Batavia, and is not equally lucrative in comparison with others to which less labour is attached, and whence much greater profits accrue: yet it is an office of much consideration, as it

gives the precedence over all other senior merchants.

All merchandise is housed in the Company's repositories, which are situated partly in the city of Batavia, and partly on the island of Onrust, under the direction of administrators, or warehouse-keepers, who must render account of the same.

This branch of business is divided into several departments, each of which has two administrators, two commissaries, and a book-keeper. Some of these administrations are very lucrative, especially that of the island of Onrust, on account of the large quantities of goods deposited there. A certain per-centage is allowed to all the administrators, upon the whole of the goods which they deliver, for waste, loss in weight, and damage, when the delivery is effected within a twelvemonth after the receipt; but when the goods have lain more than a year in the warehouses, the allowance is greater.

The occupation of the commissaries at the warehouses, is to take care that the Company suffers no prejudice at the receipt or delivery of goods. They are obliged to be present at the weighing of every thing, and to be attentive to the accuracy of the weight; an oath of fidelity in the discharge of their duty is administered to them annually by the Council of justice.

The quantity of goods sent from Europe to India is inconsiderable; in comparison with those which are conveyed from one part of the Indies to another, or to Europe. The chief articles of exportation to India is gold and silver, in bullion and coin. The annual exportation of the precious metals to India, by the Dutch East India Company, has been calculated at nearly 1,500,000*l*. in 1740, and is estimated to be 1,000,000*l*. in 1745. A person well versed in the history of the island, who has resided many years at Batavia, affirms that there is an insurmountable difference between the actual state of the island, with respect to trade, and its flourishing situation previous to the year 1740. A few inhabitants, who had never been in the service of the Company, used to report that the European trade, with respect to the island, was in a state of decay, and that the island was in a state of ruin; but it is well known that it grows worse from day to day, and that, continued mismanagement, may sufficiently account for its deterioration. Of the state of the island, as it has been already said, of the province of Jacatra, namely, that it is a possession of the Company, and that by their arms, whose plantations are their immediate subjects, governed by the council of India, and that it is particularly under the eye of the governor general.

and a person is appointed by the governor, under the title of commissary of inland affairs, who represents the rest of the inhabitants of the country in regard to all concerns on such point.

He adjusts all differences which arise between the native rulers, with the profound knowledge of the government and customs, and exacts all penalties and fines laid upon them; the greater part of the profits which accrue to him. He is feared and respected like a prince, and his interior parts, as those of a person of extraordinary individual abilities and high power; several of the great nobles of the regents, who see his dignity in the administration of the land, are admitted among the natives. The first in rank and the highest, to whom the government bears a large distinction interested in them, follows the head of the gang, and the king, whose rank is much lower in rank, having the direction over a proportionately smaller extent of country, although each of these standards is in dispute jurisdiction of the regents is regularly settled, and they are as lieutenants, and those whom disputes of little importance between the inhabitants of their districts are settled by the parties may appeal to their country. It is only when very important matters occur, in which the Company have a particular interest, that they are brought to the cognizance of the government at Batavia, and settled by them.

The commissary, who resides within the city, has a guard of natives every night at his house, and twenty or thirty well-armed attendants, who are Javanese, in the pay of the Dutch government.

The chief productions yielded by this province are sugar, coffee, indigo, and cotton yarn. The revenues which the Company draws from it amount annually to full a million of guilders.

The original letters, which are written by the council of India, to the Indian princes, are composed in the Dutch language, and signed by the governor-general, and by the secretary in the name of the government; but translations are always added in the Malay, Javanese, or other language of the prince to whom the letter is addressed. For this purpose, there are several translators at Batavia, who are well paid, and have the rank of merchants.

The letters, which are sent by the Indian princes, to the government, are written upon gold or silver flowered paper, and are brought to the council with much ceremony.

All goods which are carried into or out of Batavia, are subject to duties which are levied at the bar, at the entrance of the city. These, as well as the other taxes and imposts, are annually farmed out, generally to Chinese. The whole of them amount together upon an average to

-Of the several islands which lie before Batavia, there are no more than four, which are made any use of by the Company; and of these, Onrust is the principal. This island lies about three leagues N.W. from Batavia; it is nearly round, rises six or eight feet above the surface of the water, and is of small extent, being about 4500 feet in circumference. In the centre of the island, and within a fort, consisting of four bastions and three curtains, stand the warehouses and other buildings. On these fortifications, and on three small outworks, which are constructed at the water's edge, the walls of all which are whitened with lime, are mounted sixteen pieces of cannon of various sizes. "The fortified island of Onrust," says Captain Parish, who was there in 1793, "is well situated to command the channel that affords the principal passage into the road. The work upon that island was of a pentagonal form; its bastions were small and low, not more than

* They are, in all, fifteen in number, and have the following names given to them: Onrust, de Kuiper, Purmerend, Eagle Onrust, Rotterdam, Schiedam, Middleburgh, Amsterdam, Flora, Harlem, Baam, Enkhuizen, Alkmaar, Leyden, and Vader Sin. The two first are inasmuch, and are fronted, and within sight of the city.

twelve feet the highest; and not always connected by curtains. A few batteries were lately constructed on the outside of this work, that bore towards the sea. On these, and on the bastions, about forty guns were mounted in different directions. South of this was another island (this must be that called de Kuiper); at the distance of a few hundred yards, on which two batteries, mounting together twelve guns, had been lately erected.

In the year 1730 a small church with a steeple was erected here; where service is performed on Sundays by a clergyman, who comes hither from Batavia for that purpose every week.

The Company have here ten or twelve large warehouses, which are almost always full of goods; pepper, japan copper, saltpetre, tin, casiatour wood, sapan-wood, &c. They are under the direction of two administrators, who, as before mentioned, have very lucrative places.

On the north side of the island stand two saw-mills; and on the south side there is a long pier-head, on which are three large wooden cranes, erected for the purpose of fixing masts in ships, or unstepping them. Three ships can lie here, behind each other, alongside of the pier, in deep water, to be repaired, or to receive or discharge their cargoes. There is another pier, a little more to the westward, called the Japan pier, where one ship can lie to load or unload.

There is above twenty feet of water against the piers, and it rises and falls about five feet, once in four-and-twenty hours. All the Company's ships which require it are hove down at the wharfs along the piers, and receive every necessary repair with ease and dispatch. "It would be injustice," says Captain Cook, "to the officers and workmen of this yard, not to declare, that, in my opinion, there is not a marine yard in the world, where a ship can be laid down with more convenience, safety, and dispatch, nor repaired with more diligence and skill."

The government of the island, and the direction over the repairs which take place here, are intrusted to a master-carpenter, who has the management of every thing, except what relates to the departments of the administrators of the warehouses. His office is esteemed a very profitable one, and he has the rank of senior merchant. Though the island is but small, the number of people dwelling upon it, is supposed to be near three thousand, among whom are three hundred European workmen.

About sixteen hundred feet from Onrust is the island de Kuiper, or Cooper's Isle, which is one third less in size than the former. The Company have several warehouses upon it, in which coffee is chiefly hid up. There are two pier-heads, where vessels may load and discharge at

its south side. There are several large ~~of the~~ ~~many~~ trees interspersed over it, which afford an agreeable shade. The workmen who are employed here in the daytime, are ~~sent~~ ~~away~~ ~~at~~ ~~night~~ to Onrust, and only two men remain behind as a watch, together with a number of dogs, who are remarkably fierce, so that no one dares to set his foot on the island at night.

To the eastward of Onrust, and at twice the distance of Cooper's Isle, is the island Purmerend, which is half as large again as Onrust. It is planted with shady trees; and in the centre is a building which serves for an hospital, or lazaretto, for persons afflicted with the leprosy, and other incurable diseases, who are sent thither from Batavia. It is supported by the alms of Europeans and Javanece, but the latter contribute the largest share.

The island of Edam lies about three leagues N.N.E. from Batavia. It is about half an hour's walk in circumference. It is very woody, and has abundance of large and ancient trees. Among them is one, the trunk of which is so large, that twenty men, with their arms extended, cannot encompass it; its outward branches shoot downwards, and, taking root, as soon as they reach the earth, grow again up into trees; I saw some of them which were already two feet thick; it is the banian-tree, *ficus indica*, or Indian-fig; it is es-

esteemed holy by the Javanese, and is much venerated by them. The Company have some warehouses on this island, for salt; but the chief use they make of it, is as a place of exile for criminals, who are employed in making cordage, and over whom a ship's captain is placed as commandant.

CHAPTER VI.

Causes of the Unhealthiness of Batavia.—Mud-banks.—Morasses.—Familiarity of the Inhabitants with Disease and Death.—Want of Circulation in the Canals.—Deserted and untenanted Houses.—Depreciation in the Value of Houses.—Other Causes, originating in Europe, applied to explain the great Mortality at Batavia.—Periods when the Number of Deaths successively increased.—Register of Deaths in Hospitals, &c.—Comparative Statement of the Number of Men lost by the Company every Year.

SOUND reason, and the united experience of ages, have incontrovertibly demonstrated that low swampy land, such as has been abandoned, or thrown up by the waves of the sea, and countries overgrown with trees and underwood, are all extremely unhealthy, and frequently fatal to a great proportion of their inhabitants. And the insalubrity of the air has been found to augment or decrease as the habitations of mankind have been placed nearer to or farther from morasses, or stagnant waters, or woods, which by their proximity prevent the noxious exhalations from being dissipated by a free circulation of air.

All these causes of disease and death combine, in a greater or less degree, their baneful influence to render Batavia one of the most unwholesome spots upon the face of the globe.

They make their appearance throughout all the neighbouring foreland; and, from the point of Ontong Java, on one side, to two leagues beyond Ansoet on the other, where the firm sandy beach commences, a dismal succession of stinking mud-banks, filthy bogs, and stagnant pools, announces to more senses than one the poisonous nature of this dreadful climate.

Along this shore the sea throws up all manner of filth, slime, mollusca, dead fish, mud, and weeds, which putrefying with the utmost rapidity by the extreme degree of heat, load and infect the air with their offensive miasmata. This aggregation of mud and putrefaction receives a more peculiar increase during the bad or west monsoon, than at another time; and the constant prolongation of the pier heads of the river, contributes also a share towards this accretion. The mud-banks thus recently thrown up are soon covered with such bushes and shrubs as are peculiar to morasses, whereby fresh supplies of mud and filth are caught and retained; and the noxious exhalations are augmented and strengthened, while the north-west winds convey the whole of the putrid effluvia to the city.

Near Batavia are likewise several very low tracts, especially to the west of the city, which although they lie far enough from the sea not to be subject to inundation by it, yet by the continual and heavy rains which fall in that season of the year, often stand under water; and even include in their circuit swamps covered with high trees, which augment the corruption of the atmosphere by their foulest vapours.

It is not strange that the inhabitants of such a country should be familiar with disease and death. Preventive medicines are taken almost as regularly as food, and every person expects the returns of sickness as we do the seasons of the year. In the words of a late intelligent traveller, "the European settlers at Batavia commonly appear wan, weak, and languid; as if labouring with the 'disease of death.' Their place of residence, indeed, is situated in the midst of swamps and stagnated pools, whence they are every morning saluted with 'a congregation of' 'foul and pestilential vapours,' whenever the sea-breeze sets in, and blows over this morass. The meridian sun raises from the shallow and muddy canals, with which the town is intersected, deleterious miasmata into the air; and the trees, with which the quays and streets are crowded, emit noxious exhalations in the night. There are few examples of strangers remaining

in Batavia long, without being attacked by fever, which is the general denomination in that place for illness of every kind. The disorder at first is commonly a tertian ague, which after two or three paroxysms becomes a double tertian, and then a continued remittent, that frequently carries off the patient in a short time. The Peruvian bark is seldom prescribed in any stage of the disease; or is given in such small quantities as to be productive of little benefit. The chief, or rather the sole medicine administered, is a solution of camphor in spirit of wine. The practitioners of physic at Batavia, where the presence of the most skilful certainly is necessary, not having had the advantages of a medical education, are satisfied as to theory, with considering the nature of the fever as being to rot and corrupt the human frame; and, as to practice, that camphor being the most powerful antiseptic known, it is proper to trust to it, by a rule more simple even than Moliere's, and to exhibit it in every variety and period of the complaint. The intermittent fever does not, however, always prove fatal; but continues, in some instances, even for many years; and the patient becomes so familiarized to it as scarcely to think it a disease, attending, in the intervals of its attack, to his affairs, and mixing in society. A gentleman in that predicament, conversing upon the

nature of the climate, observed, that in fact it was fatal to vast numbers of Europeans who came to settle there; that he lost many of his friends every year; but for his part he enjoyed excellent health. Soon after he called for a napkin to wipe his forehead, adding, that this was his fever-day; he had a shocking fit that morning, and still continued to perspire profusely. Upon being reminded of his late assertion of being always healthy, he replied, he was so, with exception of those fits, which did not prevent him from being generally very well; that he was conscious they would destroy him by degrees, were he to remain in the country long, but that he hoped his affairs would enable him to leave it before that event was likely to take place. It is supposed that of the Europeans of all classes who come to settle in Batavia, not always half the number survive the year. The place resembles, in that respect, a field of battle, or a town besieged. The frequency of deaths renders familiar the mention of them, and little signs are shown of emotion and surprise, on hearing that the companion of yesterday is to-day no more." When an acquaintance is said to be dead, the common reply is, "Well, he owed me nothing;" or, "I must get my money of his executors."

The circumstances just noticed would alone be sufficient to render Batavia a most unwholesome

place of abode, and the mortality greater here than at any other spot of the Company's possessions; but to these more than adequate causes which occur in the environs and situation of the city, may be added the present interior state of the town itself, whereby the destructive unhealthiness of the climate is carried to the very pinnacle of corruption.

Two principal causes are to be met within the city, and a great part of its insalubrity is to be ascribed to them; namely, the little circulation of water in the canals which intersect it, and the diminution of the number of its inhabitants. The former is occasioned by the river, which formerly conveyed most of its water to the city, being now greatly weakened by the drain which has been dug, called the *Slokhaan*, which receives its water from the high land, and carries it away from the city, so that many of the canals run almost dry in the good monsoon. The stagnant canals, in the dry season, exhale an intolerable stench, and the trees planted along them impede the course of the air, by which in some degree the putrid effluvia would be dissipated. In the wet season the inconvenience is equal; for then these reservoirs of corrupted water overflow their banks in the lower part of the town, and fill the lower stories of the houses, where they leave behind them an inconceivable

quantity of slime and filth : yet these canals are sometimes cleaned ; but the cleaning of them is so managed as to become as great a nuisance as the foulness of the water ; for the black mud taken from the bottom is suffered to lie upon the banks, in the middle of the street, till it has acquired a sufficient degree of hardness to be made the lading of a boat, and carried away. As this mud consists chiefly of human ordure, which is regularly thrown into the canals every morning, there scarcely being a necessary in the whole town, it poisons the air while it is drying, to a considerable extent. Even the running streams become nuisances in their turn, by the negligence of the people ; for every now and then a dead hog, or a dead horse, is stranded upon the shallow parts, and it being the business of no particular person to remove the nuisance, it is negligently left to time and accident.

The second cause originates in the decay of trade, which was formerly so flourishing in this place, that there used to be scarcely a possibility of procuring a house within the walls of the city ; at present, on the contrary, those houses in which the greatest merchants dwell, their counting-houses where they carried on their business, and the warehouses which received their immense stocks of merchandise, are now either deserted and untenanted, or changed into

stables or coach-houses. The ruined square, the *Lepal*, or Spoon-street, and other parts of the lower town, afford the most visible testimony of this decay.

The buildings remaining thus uninhabited and uncleansed, speedily contract in this low, warm, and marshy place, an infectious and foul air, and contaminate even the houses adjoining; and that this both causes and augments the unhealthiness of the place, is evident from the circumstance that the mortality is greater in the lower town, or on the north side, than in the other parts of the city which are more fully inhabited.

The castle, which is now esteemed the most unhealthy part of the whole place, used not to be more so than any other spot around it; but at that time the buildings in it, which are appropriated for the governor-general, and for the first servants of the Company, were inhabited by them; these stand at present empty, are neglected, choked with dirt, and running to decay: the poor office-clerks, who have not the means of procuring another abode, and are compelled therefore to dwell in those buildings erected for them in the castle, are the victims. The military, who are for the most part quartered in the barracks built for them, and the people belonging to the marine department, who reside upon or

near the admiralty-wharf, which is opposite to the castle, are no less exposed.

Most people, not satisfied with having left the lower town in order to go and live higher up, have abandoned the city altogether, and reside in gardens without the walls, and as far removed from the town as their circumstances or the employments which they have to attend to in the city will allow them; letting their houses in the city stand empty, or occupying them only for a short time of the year, and no longer than is absolutely necessary. This goes on increasing from year to year, and will probably, in the lapse of time, produce the total abandonment and ruin of Batavia. The amazing depreciation in the value of houses, is a clear proof of this assertion.

The Dutch, who are so fond of gardens in Holland, have transferred that taste, where it can certainly be cultivated with more success, and indulge it to a great extent, at their houses a little way from Batavia; but still within that fenny district, concerning which an intelligent gentleman on the spot used the strong expression, that the air was pestilential and the water poisonous. Yet the country is every where so verdant, gay, and fertile; it is interspersed with such magnificent houses, gardens, avenues, canals, and drawbridges, and is so formed in

every respect to please the eye, could health be preserved in it, that a youth coming just from sea, and enraptured with the beauty of every object he saw around him, but mindful of the danger there to life, could not help exclaiming, "What an excellent habitation it would be for immortals!"

Although the chief causes of the greater insalubrity of Batavia than any other place under the same parallels, have been pointed out, it would be wrong to ascribe solely to these the amazing mortality among the Europeans who come hither. There are other causes, which are independent of Batavia and its climate, which contribute to this mortality. These may be chiefly considered as originating in Europe, since it is certain that the supplies of men arriving in the Indies from Europe, have not for several years past been found to bring with them those healthy constitutions which they did half a century ago. The continual increasing dearness of provisions in Europe since the year 1740, has, as is naturally the case, most affected the lowest classes of society, who have in consequence been obliged to take up with coarser and less nourishing food, which must undeniably have a prejudicial effect upon their animal frame. These, for no other sort of people, a very few excepted, take service with the Company, when conveyed on board of

the ships, deteriorate their constitutions, which have been already fundamentally shaken, by the hardships attendant on a sea life, the close and narrow places where they are lodged, and the melancholy with which most of them are attacked, on account of leaving their native country.

Arriving thus at Batavia, the most unwholesome spot which could be selected, with a broken constitution, which has received new shocks from their long voyage, it can scarcely be expected, when to this is added a scanty and insipid diet, consisting of rice and some dried fish, together with the extreme plenty and cheapness of fruit, and the easy access to strong liquors, that they should long survive the fatal moment when they first set foot on this dangerous shore: this regards the soldiery. But it is not only from the military that the muster-rolls of death are swelled: the same mortality likewise takes place among the seafaring part of the Company's servants; yet it is not so much, in every respect, applicable to those who are really seamen, and having from their youth been bred up to the profession, have in general subsisted upon better food, and acquired a more hardy temperament, but with respect to merely nominal sailors, who have never before stood upon a deck, and who constitute the greater number of the quarten in the

employ of the Company : these must be looked upon as on an equality with the soldiers.

Thus, when it is said that the mortality is general in the military and marine departments of the Company's establishment, it must be considered, that the greatest number of the individuals engaged in the sea-service, consist of such as differ from the military upon their first coming on board, only in name. Many years ago, a sufficient number of able seamen could be procured, not to be compelled to have recourse to landsmen for filling up a ship's complement ; but, ever since the year 1740, the many naval wars, the great increase of trade and navigation, particularly in many countries where formerly these pursuits were little attended to, and the consequent great and continual demands for able seamen, both for ships of war, and for merchantmen, have so considerably diminished their supply, that in our own country, where there formerly used to be a great abundance of mariners, it is now with much difficulty and expense that any vessel can procure a proper number of able hands to navigate her.

Many people who have never visited the countries between the tropics, and are too apt to credit the misrepresentations of travellers, have been led to believe, that excessive heat is the cause of the unhealthiness of Batavia ; but the

healthiness of many other countries where the same degree of heat prevails, is proof enough of the contrary. At Surat, and in Bengal, which are esteemed the most salubrious parts of India; more than once the thermometer of Fahrenheit has risen above 100° in the months of March and April, while at Batavia it has seldom been higher than 90° , and generally below that point; which is a degree of heat not unusual even in our own country: and this is moreover considerably mitigated by the refreshing land and sea breezes, returning alternately at stated hours in regular rotation.

The intermediate calms, however, before these breezes relieve each other, are not wholesome. The stagnation of the atmosphere at those times, and especially in the evening, before the land-wind begins to blow, and when the vapours, exhaled during the heat of the day, hang low over the earth, is hurtful to respiration; and the evening air is, in consequence, more especially pernicious at Batavia. Yet many of the inhabitants are accustomed to sit out of doors in the evening, because the warmth within exceeds that without.

21 There may, perhaps, be other causes, besides the various disadvantageous circumstances attending the local situation and actual state of the city above adduced, which may give occasion to

the prevailing disorder and great degree of mortality for many years past observed at Batavia; and which are either not yet discovered, or cannot be pointed out with sufficient accuracy of proof; for it is certain, that many of the circumstances here enumerated were in existence at those times when the city was not reckoned a more unhealthy place of abode than any other under the same climate.

An unusual degree of mortality first made its appearance in the year 1733; and in that, and the five following years, the deaths amounted annually to more than two thousand among the free merchants, or burghers, and Company's servants; and full fifteen hundred slaves.

From 1739 to 1743, the mortality was not quite so great; for in those five years, no more than five thousand five hundred and sixty-two of the Company's servants died in the hospitals, whereas the number amounted, in the preceding five years, to eight thousand two hundred and eighty-six; but it afterwards increased again, so that from 1744 to 1771, the deaths in the hospitals alone, into which no others are admitted than such as are in the Company's service, and of these only the common soldiers and sailors, who have not money to provide themselves with better accommodation, are the only persons who claim admittance, amounted to forty-eight thou-

sand and thirty-six. In the year 1769, alone, there died in and out of the hospitals:

2434 of the Company's servants,

164 Burghers,

681 Native Christians,

833 Mahomedans,

1831 Slaves, and

1003 Chinese.

6446

And of the latter the number may at least be augmented by one third, as so much may be taken for the deaths concealed; in order to avoid payment of the tax upon funerals; and the numbers mentioned above, are only such as have been declared.

The dead in the hospitals amounted, from the beginning of July 1775, to the end of July 1776, to the number of two thousand five hundred and ninety-five.

The following is a correct list of the number of deaths in the hospitals at Batavia, from the year 1714 to 1776, viz.

Year.	Dead.	Year.	Dead.	Year.	Dead.
1714	459	1720	750	1726	904
1715	469	1721	614	1727	676
1716	453	1722	730	1728	656
1717	494	1723	657	1729	626
1718	591	1724	769	1730	671
1719	660	1725	925	1731	780

Year.	Dead.	Year.	Dead.	Year.	Dead.
1732	781	1747	1881	1762	1399
1733	1116	1748	1261	1763	1756
1734	1325	1749	1478	1764	1757
1735	1568	1750	2035	1765	1754
1736	1574	1751	1969	1766	2039
1737	1993	1752	1601	1767	2404
1738	1776	1753	1618	1768	1893
1739	998	1754	1517	1769	1742
1740	1124	1755	2109	1770	2434
1741	1075	1756	1487	1771	2480
1742	1082	1757	1441	1772	2066
1743	1283	1758	1638	1773	1187
1744	1595	1759	1337	1774	1957
1745	1694	1760	1317	1775	2788
1746	1565	1761	1000	1776	2877

It was in 1733 that canals were chiefly begun to be dug around Batavia, by which the water was diverted from taking its course through the city, and from that time the number of dead has constantly increased. In 1744, a second hospital was erected, and in order to defray the expenses, the regulation was introduced in both hospitals, that the wages of all the sick who were admitted into them, should be withheld from them while they were under cure, and applied to the benefit of the institutions, whence, it is said, many more patients died from the chagrin this regulation caused them; and we accordingly see that that and the succeeding years are marked with a greater mortality than before. In 1761, they began to stow in the hospital, without the city, more sick people than the two hundred conva-

lescents, who were formerly attended there; and the years immediately following, show another period of increase. In 1775, an hospital-ship was laid up in the road, in consequence of which, as well in that, as in the next year, the number of dead was greater than ever.

On making a comparison between the number of deaths, and the remaining servants of the Company at Batavia; and those at the other settlements, it appears, that out of five thousand four hundred and ninety Europeans, who were present at Batavia, according to the annual muster, on the 30th of June 1768, of which number, however, one thousand three hundred and thirty-eight were patients in the hospitals, two thousand four hundred and thirty-four died within the ensuing twelve months: and that the number of the Company's servants, at all the out-settlements, was on the last day of June of the same year, according to muster, fourteen thousand four hundred and seventy Europeans; of whom, one thousand six hundred and thirty-seven died in the year following: whence it appears, that the proportion of the dead to the living is at Batavia, as twelve to twenty-seven, which is almost one half, and at the out-settlements, as eleven to one hundred, or something less than one ninth. The Company, therefore, lose in general every year one fifth part of their

servants. And they experienced a loss in the same proportion, during the same period of twelve months, upon the crews of thirty-seven ships navigating in India; and of the crews of twenty-seven ships that sailed from Europe in 1768-1769, which all together amounted, by their muster-rolls, to five thousand nine hundred and seventy-one hands, the number of dead was nine hundred and fifty-nine, which is also nearly one in six.

This comparison may certainly appear in different lights in different years, yet not so much so, but that the calculation may in general be taken for what has for several years past been the annual result.

CHAPTER VII.

General Review of the Decline in the Company's Affairs.—Recapitulation of the Receipts and Expenditure of each Settlement.—General Statement, &c.—Reflections on the decayed State of the Company.—Receipts and Expenditure.

WERE the prosperity of the East India Company only in a state of decline, from the circumstances already mentioned, hopes might be entertained of relief and restoration. A fortunate chance of war, or a favourable peace in Europe, might afford sufficient opportunities of engaging men enough to supply, in a very ample manner, the deficiency of people now laboured under.

But many other circumstances concur, if not to render the restoration of the Company's affairs a matter of impossibility, at least to afford the most unfavourable prospects respecting them.

It is not only for a few years past, that the decline of this great body has been manifest, but from much earlier times: "It cannot by any means be denied," says Mr. Van Imhoff, in his Considerations of the year 1742, "that the present state of the East India Company wears a much more disadvantageous aspect, and is not

by far in so flourishing a condition as in former times." Mr. Mossel writes to the same effect, in the year 1752 ; and very little reflection is required at present to discover, that in the year 1777, the situation of the Company has, in the last five-and-twenty years, become much worse ; and that their affairs threaten a disastrous termination at no very distant period, if more effectual measures of redress are not suggested, and resorted to, than those which have hitherto been employed.

The common course of events, in this world, teaches us, both from ancient and from modern history, that there have been, or are, no empires, states, republics, nor public bodies, but have all, after reaching the summit of their greatness, declined considerably, though the one more than the other, in power and consideration ; although the means which have been resorted to, have ever had the wished-for effect of wholly preventing their ruin ; and it has been fortunate, when, acting as palliatives, they have served to procrastinate the fall. These vicissitudes must be ascribed to the inscrutable designs of Providence ; and it should seem, that by them the Ruler of the universe hath, for the accomplishment of his all-wise purposes, intended to manifest to mankind the utter instability of every thing in this sublunary world.

The primary causes, which sap the foundations of a state or society, whilst in its most flourishing vigour, and pave the way for its decline and fall, are very seldom known. The seemingly unimportant commencements of ruin are nearly undiscernible, and they do not appear till long afterwards, and when the evil is so deeply rooted, and has raised itself to a height visible to all, while it is likewise, in general, too late to remedy it; or if some appearances of the latent source of ruin be discovered, the fatal consequences which may arise from it, are seldom duly appreciated. In this, the body politic resembles the animal frame, and is like a man in the bloom of life, who, enjoying an uninterrupted state of health, possessed of a firm and unshaken constitution, pays no regard to the first insidious attacks of a slight indisposition, which he presumes will easily be overcome by the natural strength of his constitution; till too late he finds, that with unmarked, but hideous strides, the direful disease has advanced beyond the grasp of medicine, and at length bids bold defiance to every attempt of nature, or of art, to check its fatal progress.

The evil which has its origin in the constitution of the body politic itself, is irresistibly augmented, when accidental extraneous circumstances concur to drag to perdition, the state or

institution which thus totters on its base. Both the interior leaven of corruption, and external adventitious evils, have taken place, and still exist, with regard to the Company.

The latter need not be insisted on, they are evident to every eye: with respect to the former, the first germination of those seeds of destruction is to be placed in the period when the conquest of countries, and the increase of territory, were more the objects of the Company's attention, than the prosecution, increase, or improvement of their commerce and navigation; and this period is to be defined, as having chiefly existed from the year 1660 to 1670, during which time it was, that the Company made themselves masters of the Portuguese establishments on the Malabar coast, and of the island of Celebes, both which acquisitions cost them a great expense of blood, and incalculable treasures, and have never been of any other than an imaginary advantage to their interests.

As this chapter is devoted to a general consideration of the affairs of the Company, it may not be amiss to insert here, a recapitulation of the receipts and expenditure of all the establishments of the Dutch East India Company; the former comprising their territorial revenues, and profits upon the country-trade; and the latter, all the expenses of each establishment per

se, taken from the books of the year 1779, that is, from the 1st of September 1778, to the 31st of August 1779: the order in which the establishments are placed, is that in which they are arranged in the books of the Company, and those actually known to be in the hands of the English, and distinguished by the mark †.

	Charges.	Expenditure.
Jaccatra, including Batavia	f.1,820,327	f.2,384,939
† Amboyna	48,747	201,082
† Banda	9,350	146,170
Ternate	114,997	229,406
Macasser	63,190	163,137
Timor	13,619	11,712
Banjermassing	—	12,091
Palembang	3,922	49,677
Japan	106,802	96,356
† Malacca	162,520	113,235
† Padang	74,577	53,675
† Bengal	385,159	265,517
† Coromandel	427,131	452,133
† Ceylon	611,704	1,243,038
† Malabar	414,977	489,645
† Surat	283,207	—
† Cape of Good Hope	195,168	505,269
North-east Coast of Java	436,874	281,873
Cheriban	35,761	12,584
Bantam	—	78,262
Landak and Succadana	1,764	9,796
Total	f.5,209,796	f.6,799,518
		5,209,796

leaving an exceedent in the charges of f.1,589,722

or 144,520*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.* sterling. The Indian possessions of the Company were not always a charge upon them. In 1689, the balance, drawn in the same manner, was on the other side, and showed a favourable surplus of *f.*937,361. 10. 5 (85,214*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.*); and in 1744, an advance appeared of *f.*779,056. (70,823*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*). Mossel, to whom we have so frequently had occasion to refer, calculated, in his time (1753), the whole yearly receipts at *f.*8,791,000, and the expenditure at *f.*6,517,500, which would leave a favourable surplus of *f.*2,273,500 (about 206,680*l.* sterling), and which is amazingly different from the later results. The deficiency is supplied by drafts from India, upon the direction in Holland; and, together with various other objects, the expenses of equipping twenty-five or thirty ships annually, the payment of the wages and premiums to the returning crews, the salaries of the directors, and the expenses of the administration at home, the dividends to the proprietors, &c. form the general debit of the Company, against the profits upon the merchandise they dispose of in Europe. These gains have been calculated upon an average, at from ten to eleven millions of guilders, or about one million sterling, per annum; and this computation appears to be just, from the following statement of the invoice-prices, and

net proceeds of the cargoes received from India,
for the ten years from 1750 to 1759, viz.

Years.	Ships.	Invoices.	Sales.
1750	• 22	• f.7,372,177	• f.19,024,809
1751	• 24	• 9,630,682	• 16,670,614
1752	• 20	• 7,883,361	• 23,133,580
1753	• 22	• 10,259,866	• 17,317,937
1754	• 22	• 8,859,227	• 19,840,766
1755	• 22	• 9,652,485	• 19,800,077
1756	• 25	• 8,421,419	• 19,890,066
1757	• 26	• 8,935,720	• 14,829,367
1758	• 22	• 6,906,717	• 18,934,386
1759	• 28	• 8,437,469	• 18,817,328

ON THE ISLAND OF JAVA.

1774—5.

BOOK II.

CHAPTER I.

Navigation from Batavia to Samarang.—Government of Samarang.—Dissension between the Soesoeboenam and Manko Boeni.—The latter supported by the Company.—The Empire of Java parcelled out.—The Sea-coast ceded to the Company.—They make themselves Masters of Balambouang.—Soera Carta, the Capital of the Soesoeboenam.—D'Jakje Carta, that of the Sultan.—Residencies of Oelopampang — Sourabaya — Grisse — Samanap — Rembang — Joana — Japara — Samarang — Pacalonga—Tagal.—Residents at the Courts of the two Javanese Emperors.—Establishment, Revenues, &c. of this Government.

ON leaving the road of Batavia, navigators should steer for the island of Edam; then between that and the island of Leyden, or else between Leyden and Enkhuizen; and afterwards round Point Carawang, and so far from the

shore to have offing enough to pass the reef which runs out from Sedary ; the lead is in this respect the best guide, since you must not suffer it to shoal more than ten fathoms till this reef is passed, of which you may be certain in the day-time, when the high trees of Sedary, which are few, single, and easily to be distinguished on account of their height, bear s. s. w. ; and in the night steering to the east, in twelve fathoms water : it deepens when you are past the reef ; upon which steer more southerly, keeping however your depth into the bight of Pamanoeckan, till the water shoals to ten and nine fathoms, when you must steer again more east, in order not to approach too near the shore of Java ; you may be sure you will then run clear of the rock upon which the Castle of Woerden was lost, although there is sixteen fathoms water close to it : but the safest is to anchor here during the night. Having doubled the point of Pamanoeckan, steer for that of Indraymaye, in ten, eleven, twelve, and thirteen fathoms water ; upon approaching the last, be sure to keep in those depths, to avoid falling upon the reef of Cheribon ; which having passed, steer as much to the southward of east as to retain nineteen or twenty fathoms depth ; or in the daytime keeping within sight of the shore till you begin to near Pamalang, when you must steer so far off

shore as to double the rock which lies N. E. by N. from that place : you will then come in sight of the hills of Tagal, Samarang, and the Two Brothers ; when the land bears due south, steer for the shore, and afterwards along it, till the ensign-staff of Samarang bears S. S. E. and let drop your anchor in five or four and a half fathoms. All along the north coast of Java, the bottom is a soft clay.

This government, which is one of the most lucrative for the Company's servants, was twenty years ago only a commandery ; it was changed into a government upon the considerable acquisition of territory made by the Company along the sea-coast, by cession to them by the Soesoe-hoenam, at the conclusion of peace, during the government of Mr. Harting, who terminated the war of Java, in which the empire was split into two parts, one remaining under the Soesoe-hoenam, and the other becoming subject to the present reigning sultan, Manko Boeni.

It is of the utmost importance to the Company that this establishment be well governed, on account of the immediate relation which it has to the two above-mentioned Javanese princes, who nourish the most implacable enmity towards each other. The Company would not wish to see a termination of their mutual hatred, for as long as it remains in force they retain the secure

possession of their acquisitions along the sea-coast; and though not nominally, they are always in reality likewise masters of the inner parts; for, upon uniting with either of these two princes, they can make the balance lean so much against the other, that they are both constrained to remain quiet.

This was in fact their object in fomenting the dissension which arose between the Soesochoenam and Manko Boeni, and whence the war of Java had its origin.

The last-named, a prince of the imperial family, and a descendant of the former Soesochoenam, wanted to have as an appanage the province of Mataram, which had already been allotted to the hereditary prince Masseyd, son of the Soesochoenam.

This Masseyd was of a short stature and an excellent disposition; he gloried in the circumstance that he had never killed an European except in battle. Manko Boeni, on the contrary, and his son and heir apparent, more than once caused the captive Europeans to be pounded in their rice-blocks; or he cut off their genitals, and forced them into their mouths. The last-mentioned in particular showed himself an implacable enemy of all Europeans; and of a most cruel and bloodthirsty temper.

As Mataram was an extensive and wealthy

district, which the Company did not wish to remain under the power of the Soesoehoenam, they clandestinely encouraged Manko Boeni to require it at the hands of the Soesoehoenam. The Company did this agreeably to their adopted system of weakening the empire as much as possible, in order to preserve their possessions in Java with greater ease; and they secretly promised Manko Boeni to maintain him in his pretensions.

Immediately hereupon he left the court, and retired to his domains, where he directly rose in arms against the emperor, and began a civil war.

The Company, in order to save appearances, and to render their conduct more defensible than if they had openly espoused the part of Manko Boeni, offered themselves as mediators between these two princes, foreseeing that the Soesoehoenam, who relied upon the superiority of his power, far from conceding, would reject all overtures of peace, and, prosecuting the war with vigour, would endeavour entirely to subdue his opponent.

Exactly as they foresaw, the emperor rejected all offers of conciliation, and entered eagerly into a war which was to end in his discomfiture and disgrace.

There was now the most urgent necessity for

the Company to espouse, in earnest, the quarrel of Manko Boeni, partly in order to persevere in their proposed system; and partly to secure themselves from the ill will which would infallibly, and not unreasonably, be entertained against them by the Soesochoenam, as he soon became acquainted with their manœuvres to kindle these flames of discord; and, if Manko Boeni were subdued, the power of the Soesochoenam would thereby be so much augmented, that the Company would, in all probability, have stood in need of the exertion of all their power to resist his attack.

Fortune favoured their arms: and though incalculable sums were expended in the contest, they attained their object—the division and separation of the empire.

A considerable part of the provinces of the empire of Java, among which Mataram was one of the principal, was given to Manko Boeni, under the title of Sultan; the whole of the north-east coast of the island was ceded to the Company, upon condition of their paying a yearly acknowledgment of twenty thousand rixdollars, about 4350*l.* to the Soesochoenam, who retained possession of the remainder under his former title.

The jurisdiction of this government was further extended by the conquest of the land of Ba-

lambouang, situated at the most eastern extremity of Java.

This province, the productions of which can never yield the Company a sufficient compensation for the blood and treasures which it costs, would doubtless have never become an object of their ambition, if the cupidity of one of their servants had not excited in them the desire of possessing it. Placing no limits to his lust of wealth, he rather, as ordinary methods could not assuage his rapacity, put the interest of his employers to the hazard, than suffer his boundless thirst of gold to remain unsatisfied.

The plausible pretext by which the government in India, and afterwards the direction in Holland, were instigated to disturb the tranquillity of this country, which they had for many years regarded with so much indifference, was the representation that there was reason to fear that the English wanted to take possession of it; nay, that an expedition for that purpose was actually on foot, and was expected, or had arrived at the Straits of Bali; that they had probably already landed, and would consequently establish themselves in time on the island. There was some truth in this report; but the Company would in all likelihood never have begun that ruinous war, had it not been for these interested instigations; for their competitors would not

have found it an easy matter to establish their trade here, notwithstanding this was so much insisted on at Samarang.

In this manner was this empire, once so formidable, split into three parts; and it has thereby, not only become a less dangerous neighbour to the Company, but is likewise entirely under their control, by means of their holding the balance between the above-mentioned potentates. Even the prince who has the greatest right to the throne is not appointed heir to the crown, without the consent of the Company; and the nomination of the prime ministers of both the princes is likewise vested in the Company.

The capital city of the Soedjoeboem is Soete Carta, commonly called Jolo, and is about two days journey inland, south-east from Samarang. That of the sultan, D'Jokje Carta, lies five days journey south-west from Samarang, at the south side of Java, in the province of Mataram.

To the government of the north-eastern coast

The resting-places, arranged on the road from Samarang to D'Jokje Carta, are

from Samarang to Onara, 15 (Dutch) miles;
from Onara to Jambou, 7 ditto;
from Jambou to Sembou, 9 ditto;
from Sembou to Sunnigement, 6 ditto;
and from Sunnigement to D'Jokje Carta, 9 ditto.

of Java, the seat of which is at Samarang, belong all the factories, commonly called residencies, which the Company possess from Oelopampang, as far as the province of Cheribon; which last, in the same manner as Bantam, is under the immediate administration of the government at Batavia.

The sea-coast, thus ceded to the Company, belonging to the government of Samarang, extends from Oelopampang to Tagal, full one hundred German miles in length; the breadth inland is various, running farther into the country at one place than at another *. It is divided into nine residencies.

* Extract from Captain Bligh's Journal, 1789.

"Sunday the 6th. In the afternoon we saw the high land of Cape Sandana, which is the north-east part of Java. The next day we were off the Cape, which is a low point projecting from the high land. It is placed by the Dutch maps in 155° south; but, according to my observation, and our estimated distance from the land, I make it in 7° 46'.

"We steered to the westward, along the coast of Java, and on the 10th, at noon, we anchored off Passourwang, in two fathoms, distant from the shore half a league; the entrance of the river bearing s. w. The coast hereabouts is so shoal, that large ships are obliged to anchor three or four miles from the land. As soon as we were at anchor, I got in my boat and went on shore. The banks of the river, near the entrance, were sandy on which grew a few mangrove-bushes. Among them were two hogs running, and many were lying dead in the mud, which caused a most intolerable stench, and made

Oolopampang is the first, beginning from the east. This settlement was only established after

me heartily repent having come here; but proceeding about a mile up the river, the course of which was serpentine, we found a very pleasant country, and landed at a small and well-constructed fort. The houses at Passourwang are nearly built, and the country appears to be well cultivated. The produce of this settlement is rice, of which they export large quantities. There are but few Dutch here; the Javanese are numerous, and their chief lives with considerable splendour. They have good roads, and posts are established along the coast, and it appears to be a busy and well-regulated settlement. Latitude $7^{\circ} 36'$ south.

"The next day, about noon, we sailed; and on the 14th, in the evening, anchored in Sourabaya road, in seven fathoms: the flagstaff bearing s. $\frac{1}{2}$ w. distance from the shore one mile. We found riding here seven square-rigged, and several smaller vessels. Sourabaya is one of the most pleasant places I ever saw. It is situated on the banks of a river, and is a mile and a half distant from the sea-shore, so that only the flagstaff can be seen from the road. The river is navigable up to the town for vessels of 100 tons burden, and the bank on one side is made convenient for tracking. The Chinese carry on a considerable trade here, and have a town on the side of the river opposite to Sourabaya. The country near the town is flat, and the soil light, so that they plough with a single bullock or buffalo. Our latitude observed in Sourabaya road, was $7^{\circ} 11'$ south.

"On the 17th we sailed from Sourabaya. At noon we anchored at Grisse, which is a town, with a small fort, belonging to the Dutch. We remained here about two hours. Latitude of Grisse, $7^{\circ} 9'$ south.

"The navigation through the Straits of Madura is so intricate, that, with the little opportunity I had, I am unable to un-

the war of Balambouang, and is under the direction of a junior merchant.

Sourabaya is the next; the chief of which has, at present, the rank of senior merchant, and the title of commander of the eastern district. It mostly yields rice.

Then follows Grisse, where the resident has the rank of merchant, and the chief produce of which is also rice.

Samarang, situate on the island of Madura, is the residence of a junior merchant. It yields

detake a description of it. The next day, September the 18th, having passed the Straits, we bore away to the westward, along the coast of Java. We had regular soundings all the way to Samarang, off which place we anchored on the 22d, in the afternoon; the church bearing s. e. distance from the shore half a league, depth of water two fathoms. The shoalness of the coast here, makes the road of Samarang very inconvenient, both on account of the great distance which large ships (of which there were several in the road) are obliged to lie from the shore, and of the landing, which is in a river that cannot be entered before half-flood. This river resembles the one at Passourwang, the shores being low, with offensive dead animals lying about them. Samarang is surrounded by a wall and ditch. Here is a very good hospital, and a public school, chiefly for teaching the mathematics. They have likewise a theatre. Provisions are remarkably cheap here, beef being at ten doits per pound, and the price of a fowl twelve doits. The latitude of Samarang is $6^{\circ} 13'$ south.

* On the 26th, we sailed from Samarang, and on the 1st of October we anchored in Batavia road."

no article of trade, and serves only to keep watch over the island in which it lies.

Rembang, where formerly a junior merchant was stationed, but the chief has now the rank of merchant. It yields salt and timber; and a ship of five hundred tons, and three or four smaller vessels, are annually built here for the service of the Company.

At a little distance from Rembang lies Joana, which is under the control of a junior merchant. It yields rice and timber, also a little indigo and cotton-yarn.

Japara, where the resident has the rank of merchant. Its productions are the same as those of Joana.

Samarang, the residence of the governor of Java. Its chief produce is rice and cotton-yarn.

Farther on is Pacalonga, governed by a junior merchant, and yielding sugar and rice.

Lastly, and most to the westward, Pagal, where a merchant is the resident, which produces rice.

Besides the residents at these places along the coast, those at the courts of the Soesoehoenan, and the sultan, are also subordinate to this government. There are two at each, the first ranking as senior merchant, and the second as merchant; with the difference, however, that at Soera Carta the former is a captain in the mili-

tary, while at D'Jokje Carta, they both belong to the corps of *pennists*.

The Company maintain a body of about one hundred and fifty men in the service of each of these princes, nominally as a body-guard in honour of them; but this number is rarely full, there being a great want of men in this government.

Both these Javaneæ princes have a number of children by their many concubines, so that the portion of each child is not very brilliant, and some of them are merely common regents at different places: thus I met with one, at the residency of Joana, who was *tomagong*, or regent, of the province of Patti, and at the same time uncle of the reigning Soetopoehnam.

The whole establishment of the Company, in the government of the north-eastern coast of Java, consisted, in 1776-1777, of 234 persons in civil, and 13 in ecclesiastical employments; 35 surgeons and assistants, 109 belonging to the artillery, 268 seamen and marines employed on shore, 1356 soldiers, and 30 mechanics; in all 2945 Europeans. The governor has a very lucrative office; it is estimated to yield from 80 to 100,000 rixdollars, or nearly 20,000*l.* sterling annually. He is generally superseded in two or three years, and must, in his turn, make room for a more unfledged successor, that each may

have his due share of the good things of the land. The greater part of this immense revenue accrues from the trade which the governor is enabled to carry on. His ostensible emoluments, besides his salary, consist in three tenths of an allowance of five per cent. granted to the Company's servants, the rest being distributed in various proportions to the inferior officers, on all the import and export duties, and other territorial sources of revenue of the Company, and in a yearly contribution levied from the strand-regents or native magistrates of the several districts, amounting together to 1713 Spanish dollars. Besides the articles mentioned, a large quantity of lentils, *cadjang*, which are much used for the consumption of the common people, with some cardamom, the *animum compactum*, ginger, *animum singiber*, and turmeric, are exported from this colony. They are mostly employed in the country-trade. Part, however, of its produce comes to Europe. In 1778, the following goods, brought from this part of the coast, were sold in Holland, viz.

20,000 lb. of indigo, at f.6 (11s. sterling)

per lb. which stood the Company in

f.1 10 (2s. 9d.)

50,000 lb. of turmeric;

and 65,000 lb. of cotton yarn.

On the other hand, this colony takes opium, to

the amount of f.1,500,000 , or about $136,000\text{l.}$ sterling annually, silk clothes, India piece-goods, and European manufactures, on all which large profits accrue both to the Company and to their servants. The statements of Governor Mossel make the yearly receipts of the Company here amount to f.400,000 , and the charges to f.380,000 ; but, in 1779, the former were f.436,874 , and the latter only f.281,873 ; leaving a favourable balance of f.155,001 , or about $14,000\text{l.}$

CHAPTER II.

Combats of wild Beasts and Criminals.—The Company appoint Successors to the Princes of Java— Likewise Prime Ministers.—Tomogangs, or native Regents.—Prices paid for the Rice.—Account of the Depalti of Samarang.—Entertainment at the Governor's House.—River of Samarang.—Tides.—Fortifications.—Chinese Temple.—Warehouses and Workshops.—Guardhouse.—Government House.—Suburbs.—Garrison.—View of Fisher's Island.—Account of Japara.—The Fort, House of the Resident, &c.—Old Japara.—Ancient Javanese Tombs.—Old Moorish Temple.—Character of the present Resident.

THE most favourite diversions of the Javanese emperors are combats between wild beasts.

When a tiger and a buffalo are to fight for the amusement of the court, they are brought upon the field of combat in large cages. The field is surrounded by a body of Javanese, four deep, with levelled pikes, in order that, if the animals endeavour to break through, they may be killed immediately; this, however, is not so easily effected; but many of these poor wretches are torn in pieces, or dreadfully wounded, by the enraged animals.

When every thing is in readiness, the cage of the buffalo is first opened at the top, and his back is rubbed with certain leaves, which have the singular quality of occasioning an intolerable degree of pain, and which, from the use they are applied to, have been called buffalo-leaves by our people, but by the Javanese *kamadu*. They sting like nettles, but much more violently, so as to cause an inflammation in the skin. On every vein they have sharp-pointed prickles, which are transparent, and contain a fluid that occasions the irritation. Dr. Thunberg says, it is a species of nettle, before unknown, to which he gave the name of *urtica stimularis*. The door of the cage is then opened, and the animal leaps out, raging with pain, and roaring most dreadfully.

The cage of the tiger is then opened, and fire is thrown into it, to make the beast quit it, which he does generally running backwards out of it.

As soon as the tiger perceives the buffalo, he springs upon him; his huge opponent stands expecting him, with his horns upon the ground: if the buffalo succeed in catching and throwing him into the air, and the tiger recovers from his fall, he generally loses every wish of renewing the combat: and if the tiger avoids this attempt of the buffalo, he springs upon him, and seizing him in the neck, or other parts, tears his flesh

from his bones; in most cases, however, the buffalo has the advantage.

The Javanese who must perform the dangerous office of making these animals quit their cages, may not, when they have done, notwithstanding they are in great danger of being torn in pieces by the enraged beasts, leave the open space, before they have saluted the emperor several times, and his majesty has given them a signal to depart; they then retire slowly, for they are not permitted to walk fast, to the circle, and sit with the other Javanees.

The emperor sometimes makes criminals, condemned to death, fight with tigers. In such cases, the man is rubbed with *berri*, or turmeric, and has a yellow piece of cloth put round him; a *kris* is then given to him, and he is conducted to the field of combat.

The tiger, who has for a long time been kept fasting, falls upon the man with the greatest fury, and generally strikes him down at once with his paw; but if he be fortunate enough to avoid this, and to wound the animal, so that it quits him, the emperor commands him to attack the tiger, and the man is then generally the victim: even if he ultimately succeed in killing his ferocious antagonist, he must suffer death, by command of the emperor.

An officer in the Company's service, who had

long been stationed at the courts of the Javanese emperors, once witnessed a most extraordinary occurrence of this kind, namely, that a Javanese who had been condemned to be torn in pieces by tigers, and for that purpose had been thrown down from the top into a large cage, in which several tigers were confined, fortunately fell exactly upon the largest and fiercest of them, across whose back he sat astride, without the animal doing him any harm, and even, on the contrary, appeared intimidated; while the others also, awed by the unusual posture and appearance which he made, dared not attempt to destroy him; he could not, however, avoid the punishment of death, to which he had been condemned, for the emperor commanded him to be shot dead in the cage.

According to the stipulations of the last treaty, the Company determine which of the sons of either emperor shall succeed his father, who is then nominated heir to the crown; they equally appoint the *pangerang*, or prince, who has the administration of the empire, and is first *warin*, or prime minister. The Company's possessions along the coast, are divided into regencies. A Javanese, of somewhat more than common birth, is appointed regent in each, by the Company, under the designation of *swargang*, to whom the determi-

nation of disputes of small moment, among his subordinate Javanese, is left; they may even inflict corporal punishment, but not death; crimes which require the last being only adjudicable by the native council at Samarang.

They must likewise take care that the Javanese inhabitants deliver the produce of their land to the Company, or rather to themselves, in order to convey it afterwards to the several residencies or factories.

A certain contingent, or assessment of produce, is laid upon each of these regents, which they must be attentive to furnish punctually, or they run a risk of being dismissed.

The Company pay a fixed price for every article. That of the rice is ten rindollars, or twenty-four guilders, for every coeyang of 3400 pounds weight, about 13. 6s. per cwt; but when the harvest fails, they sometimes pay five rindollars more; or when the wants are very large, as in the year 1773, when the scarcity of this grain at Batavia, occasioned by a certain occurrence respecting the first administrator in the grain-magazine, was very great; or when several succeeding harvests have failed, orders are then given to the residents to buy the rice immediately from the natives, and the coeyang then stands them in fifty rindollars.

Samarang alone has a *deputé*, who is higher

in rank than the *tonawangs*, and a prince of the blood, or *pangrang*. He has, however, no jurisdiction over the other regents, except those within the district of Samarang itself. He is likewise the chief of the native council.

Stavorinus was once in company with this prince, at the house of the governor of Samarang, who gave an entertainment that evening on the occasion of the birth-day of his little boy. The *depatti* was placed next to the governor, at his right hand; he appeared to be a man of full fifty years of age, rather above the usual stature, thin, and of a brown complexion; he had little beard, a grave deportment, and was very sedate and unaffected in conversation.

He was dressed in a short brown coat, with silver buttons, and silver-edged button-holes; the sleeves sat tight to the arms, below the elbows to the wrists. Under this he wore a *chintz sarong*, which reached to the ground. On his feet he had large slippers, square-toed, and turned up. His cap, or head-band, was of white linen, which having been much beat, and prepared with rice-starch, was as transparent as gauze. He was addressed by the governor by the title of *young depati*, and treated with great respect. His *dalem*, or dwelling, stands on the *Begéban* near the house of the governor, whom

he is likewise obliged to accompany, when he goes to reside at Boeyang, about half a league farther, where he has also a mansion close to that of the governor.

On the occasion of this festival, two of the elders of the church at Samarang, the fiscal, and the lieutenant of the artillery, danced a reel for the diversion of the company.

The town of Samarang lies on the east side of the river of the same name, which takes its rise about three Dutch miles inland, and falls into the sea, about two hundred fathoms below the place; at its mouth it is not more than three hundred and thirty, or forty, feet broad. A bridge over it, leads from the town to the usual residence of the governor, which is called the Vrijheid, Freedom, and is a large and handsome building. The Chinese and Javanese camps or suburbs are on the same side of the river.

This river, like all others in Java, has a bank lying before its mouth, which is in some places composed of soft mud, and in others of hard sand. At low water there is scarcely more than one foot water upon it.

Here, as well as all along the coast of Java, the tide rises but once in four and twenty hours. In the bad monsoon, or when the west winds blow, it is high water in the daytime, and low-

water at night; and during the good or east monsoon, the contrary takes place. When it is low water without the banks, the rivers are at the highest; and the moon seems to have no influence here upon the tides.

The fortifications of Samarang are in the same state as all those of the Company, most deplorably bad. The walls which surround it, and connect the projections, for they can scarcely be called angles, are low and ruinous.

The most remarkable object at this place was a temple of the Chinese, a middling-large building, with two courts before it; the interior is decorated with the gigantic images of their gods, which are strongly gilt, and make a splendid appearance.

Samarang has a small but neat church; near it is an elegant tomb of Mr. Toutlemond, formerly head administrator and second in command here.

The warehouses and workshops stand in a row, all under one roof, projecting out, and covering a piazza before them, full three hundred feet in length. They are to the south-west of the town, by the river-side.

The guard-house has, besides the place for the privates, two large apartments for the accommodation of the officers upon duty.

The government-house, formerly the residence

of the governor, and where the several offices are actually held, is near to, and faces the river. There are three campons, or suburbs—the Chinese, the Javanese, and the Bouginese; of which the two first are west, and the last eastward of the river.

When the garrison of Samarang is complete, it amounts to one hundred and fifty men, besides an independent company of dragoons, which are under the command of a captain-lieutenant; all the other military of the place are subject to the orders of the captain-commandant of Samarang.

Vischers, or Fisher's Island, is a small low island, about two leagues and a half s. w. from Japara, and particularly distinguishable by two or three high trees, which grow upon it.

Behind De Nis and a little to the s. e. lies another island, which is surrounded by very dangerous shoals, and contracts the extent of the road of Japara.

From the island De Nis, the water shoals gradually, first, from five to two and a half fathoms; and when in this last depth, you are abreast of the Foul island: it then lessens by degrees, to six feet, when you are close to a high rock, called the Walvisch, or Whale, whence it shoals more and more, with some sunken rocks, to the mouth of the little river of Japara,

where is two feet water and less, and which is about 140 or 150 feet over. The source of this stream lies no more than a short league up the country.

On entering the rivulet on the north side, is a gentle eminence, about fifty feet high, on the western part of which stands a small triangular fort, with one bastion pointing to the sea, and the other two to the land; in the middle of the curtain which connects the two last is the gate: this fort is mounted with several pieces of cannon of different calibre; it is built of stone, and is kept in good repair: the garrison consists of one serjeant, two corporals, and sixteen privates. The rest of the eminence is used for a burying-ground, in which the ensign-staff is erected.

On the south side of the rivulet are some Javanese houses and huts, and about sixty rods from its mouth it is crossed by a bridge.

On the north side is the house of the resident, opposite to a large plain, planted with shady trees, and railed round. It has several handsome apartments, furnished neatly and elegantly, in the European style. On the left of it is a pleasant bower, or pavilion, of one hundred feet in length, eighteen in breadth, and ten in height, so closely interwoven with flowering shrubs, that it is impervious to light showers of rain. At the end is a grotto; and when, on an evening, the

whole is illuminated; it forms a very charming *coup d'œil*.

About a mile and a half above the settlement the stream turns a saw-mill, which saws the yearly quantity of four or five thousand large logs of timber into planks, termed mill-planks. The water is carried to the mill through a brick channel, and a dam is made across the rivulet, to prevent it from running off, till there is sufficient to turn the mill.

One Dutch mile inland lies the ancient Javanese city of Japara, called Old Japara, formerly the residence of the sovereigns of an empire of that name. The tomb of one of them is still in existence; it contains the body of the emperor, that of his most beloved wife on the right hand, and of two other of his wives on the left, together with several of his children. The shape of these graves is oblong: the approach to them is through a sort of portico, inclosed by a railing, is a large covered apartment. Over the graves of the emperor and his most beloved wife, a large piece of linen is continually expanded, which covers them both; and they are strewed every Friday with fresh flowers.

Not far from this is an old ruinous Moorish temple, of stone, with such beautiful sculpture of imagery and foliage, that the art and ingenuity of the Javanese of those times excites our admiration.

ration. This temple is at least three hundred years old.

At the sea-side, about two miles from Japara, the resident has a wooden summer-house, in a pleasant grove of cocoa-nut-trees, whence there is a very fine prospect out to sea, and of the neighbouring islands.

CHAPTER III,

Mandelique Island.—Account of Joana River.—

Inland Navigation to Samarang.—The Town.—

Chinese Campon.—Fort.—House of the Resident.

—Character, &c. of the present Resident.—His

Emoluments.—Celebration of the New Year.—

Account of the Tammagongs, or native Regents.—

Of the Pattis, or Sub-regents.—Entertainment at

the House of one of the Tammagongs.—Labok

Island.—Madura.

EARLY on the morning of the 22d of December 1774, we weighed anchor and put to sea, in order to proceed to Joana.

Mandelique, often called the Duivelsklip, or Devil's Rock, because, in the east monsoon, ships are detained here a long time by contrary winds and currents before they can weather it, is small but of a middling height, so as to be seen at the distance of five or six leagues. It lies about half a league from the coast of Java; between which and the island there is a passage, in three and a half or four fathoms water, but it is too narrow to be safe, and ships therefore very seldom pass through it.

The river of Joana flows out of a large inland lake, into which several small streams discharge

themselves. It is called the inland sea, and disembogues its superfluous water mostly through this river, which, after a considerable serpentine course, falls into the sea about four leagues to the westward of Rembang. It is one of the largest and most navigable rivers along the whole north coast of Java, being at the mouth, and a great way up beyond the residency, twenty and more feet deep, and in breadth about two hundred.

In the bad monsoon the afflux is much more violent than in the good monsoon. The water, as is the case with all rapid streams, is turbid; but when it has stood still some time in pots or casks, it becomes very clear and pleasant.

Up this river is a passage along several other rivers to Samarang, and thence farther up the country. This navigation may be performed in boats, termed *permayangs*, in two or three days; and it is especially availed of in the bad monsoon, when the voyage by sea, round the island Mandelique, requires too long a time, and is much too dangerous for small craft.

A broad mud-bank, upon which there is sometimes less than a foot water, lies before the mouth of the Joana river. From its mouth to the residency, which stands full a league up on the west side, it runs between low and swampy grounds, which are uncultivated, and produce nothing but brushwood: they are sometimes in-

undated when the river rises suddenly after heavy rains.

The town of Joana commences just above the residency. It consists of two rows of houses built along the river, about a quarter of a Dutch mile in length. At the farther end lies the Pascébaan, and not far from it is the dwelling of the *tommagong*.

On the opposite side, upon an island formed by the river of about half a Dutch mile in circumference, stands the Chinese campon.

The *odge*, or fort of Joana, is a redoubt with four demi-bastions, in which are the rice-warehouses, barracks for the soldiery, and some buildings which serve for a kitchen and other offices for the resident. The house of the resident stood formerly within the fort, but it has been pulled down, and a new one has been built without, of freestone, on the east side, and is kept in excellent repair.

This mansion was constructed according to the plan of the engineer Haak. It consists of two pieces opposite to each other, connected by a lofty dome of full twenty-five feet diameter, supported by four columns of the Tuscan order. Both these pieces are, however, but of one story; they are sixty feet long and twenty-five broad, within the walls. One of them forms a single hall of the same dimensions. The other

is divided into three apartments; the middle one, which is twenty-five feet in depth, and about sixteen in breadth, is opposite to the door of the great hall and to the great dome: it is fitted up as a chapel; the entrance to it is through a handsome arch or portico: on each side of it is a large chamber of the same size, making, together with the chapel, the length of the whole building on this side, and the same as that of the great hall. The walls of all these apartments are beautifully stuccoed, adorned with sumptuous gilt cornices; and the roofs are concave, wainscoted, and curiously adorned with carved imagery.

Behind this pile stands a building, constructed entirely of wood, containing three handsome rooms; and above these is one large apartment for the unmarried female slaves, and which might therefore be called the *seraglio*. From this edifice is a most delightful view backwards over the *paddies* or rice fields, interspersed with small groves, and terminated by the distant and lofty mountains of Japara.

In the front of all stands a handsome saloon, built close to the river-side. It is of an oblong octagon shape, and is stuccoed on the sides and roof, but the cornices are not gilt. A large balcony projects from it towards the river, the

only inconvenience of which consists in the swarms of mosquitoes which infest it every evening.

The emoluments of this residency amount annually to sixteen thousand rixdollars, about 3500*l*. They proceed from the surplus weight of the rice delivered by the native regents to the Company, and from the cheap rate at which this article is purchased, not to mention what he himself buys up and disposes of to individuals for at least fifty per cent. profit; likewise from the collection of the timber yearly furnished to the Company at a fixed price, and which costs him no more than the labour, which is very cheap, as he has only to send two or three hundred Javanese into the woods to fell the trees, and hew them into logs.

Ship-building also affords considerable gain to the present resident; for both timber and labour cost him little; a Javanese master-shipwright earning no more than about six *dubbeltjes*, or two penny-pieces a day, his assistants four, and the common labourers two.

He lately built a snow of one hundred and one feet in length, according to the model of the States' armed snow, the *Zephyr*, of Rotterdam, which was handsomely fitted up. It was sold for eighteen thousand rixdollars.

There are also profits attached to the *bhan-*

duary, or farm of the duties, which accrue nominally to the Chinese, but in reality to the resident.

A few days before the new year, every Javanese of the least connexion, either with the Company or resident, comes to make presents to him, consisting chiefly of poultry, eggs, sugar, fruit, &c. Those of a higher order, such as the Chinese captain, bring rolls of satin.

On the first of January 1775, a salute of one-and-twenty guns was fired at sun-rise, from some small pieces of cannon planted before the saloon. On this occasion an European, a strong and corpulent man, who acted as gunner, met with a terrible accident. Passing before the muzzle of one of the guns, the priming of which had flashed without discharging the piece, it went off the instant he was before it, and blew him upwards of six feet forwards; the loading had fortunately been rammed down without a wad, so that he was no otherwise hurt than by being dreadfully burnt on his side, arm, and belly.

Two hours afterwards came three Javanese regents, or *rentilagongs*, belonging to the district of this factory, to congratulate the resident on the new year, in the following manner: *Sallamat tuon baro rentawang; Allé cassi tu mibur panjang;*

that is, "Much joy with the new year; God grant you a long life."

The first of these regents, who was *tommangong*, over part of the province of Patti, appeared to be a man of full fifty years old. He had gray hairs and a little beard; he was esteemed one of the most intelligent of the Javanese, and was even thought so much of, that the Soesochoemam wanted much to have made him administrator of his empire, but he declined the dignity, preferring to be a common regent in the Company's possessions than a powerful statesman under an arbitrary monarch; for the ministers of those princes are not only liable to incur a speedy disgrace, and to be dismissed from their offices, but they are often degraded to the rank of *battari*, which is little different from the condition of a slave, obliged to perform the most menial and most toilsome offices; while it is very seldom that the Company come to such extremities.

His dress consisted of a short coat, or jacket, of deep red velvet, which came a little below the hips, and was fastened with small silver buttons round the body, under the arms, and round the wrists. The lower part of this jacket, below the buttons, was stiffened out all round. Under it he wore a *seron*, in the country fashion, round his body down to his heels, made of Javanese painted cloth. His *kris* was in a sheath of gold,

beautifully worked, and the handle was made of *cajou pelli*, which is reckoned the most costly wood produced in the Indies; it is very scarce, of a grayish colour, with thin black veins running through it, and of a very hard, close, and fine texture. His cap was of purple velvet, bordered with narrow silver lace. Like most Javanese of distinction, he spoke little, and with becoming gravity.

The next regent was the uncle of the present Soesoehocnam, and equally regent of the province of Patti. The simplicity of this man was as remarkable as the intelligence of the former; and the resident was always able to do whatever he pleased in the province of Patti, as the latter was very easily persuaded to every thing.

The third regent was the *tonimagong* of Joana, a large comely man, whose good-nature was pictured in his open and friendly countenance: in understanding, however, he too was not to be compared to the first.

There was likewise another, who was regent of Caylam, as well as a native of the place. The other Javanese would not acknowledge him, or any of the Caylammers; to be of their own race, or true Javanese, saying, that they were produced from the unnatural connexion of a woman with a dog. Indeed, the whole time that they were together, none of the other regents condescended to address a single word to him.

Each regent had his *patti*, or sub-regent, with him; but while the former sat upon a chair, the latter was obliged to sit upon the floor, upon his heels, and when called by his superior, to creep along the ground to him, and sit down at his feet, waiting till he was pleased to speak or to issue his commands.

At seven o'clock in the evening these regents came with a number of servants, with musical instruments, &c. to supper to the resident's house. Before supper there was music and dancing in the European style; but after it, several Javanese dancing girls were sent for, with whom each of the regents, and after them their *pattis*, danced, or, as they termed it, *landacked*, to the sound of their own musical instruments, gomgoms, boudas, and a kind of violins, which continued till late at night, when they all left us for their own houses.

On the 3d of January the resident paid a visit to the *tammagong* of Joana. He received him in state, and during the playing of gomgoms and other instruments. His favourite wife, and the wife of his son, together with his mother, likewise came and drank tea. A large silver plate with confectionary stood upon a table near, and each took what he liked of it.

On the 14th the same regent gave an entertainment on the occasion of the marriage of his

daughter, which had been solemnized some time before. The resident had caused, at his desire, the provisions to be dressed by his own people, in the European manner, so that there was little or no Javanese victuals to be seen. After supper some dancing girls were again introduced, with whom the *tommagong* and his sons *sandacked*. Their wives were not present at this; and when, a short time before the company broke up, they came in, care had been taken that the dancing girls were gone before they entered.

Lubok, commonly called the Baviaan or Baboon island, is not large, but extremely populous. Seventy or eighty vessels go continually to and fro, between it and the coasts of Java and Borneo. The inhabitants have no connexion with, and are independent, of the Company.

Along the coasts of Java, from Joana, as far as the point of Grisse, where the land turns first to the south, to Sourabaya, and then, behind the island Madura, in an easterly direction to the Straits of Bali, through which it stretches to the south again, as far as the Southern Indian ocean, there is no danger to be avoided. One may sail without apprehension along the shore, at the distance of one or two leagues from the land, only taking care to steer clear of the projecting points.

Many high mountains lie inland ; the foreland is, on the contrary, low, but may be seen at the distance of three and a half or four leagues.

The land of Madura may be seen eight or nine leagues off ; but the eastern part of it, it is said, is visible at fifteen and more leagues' distance.

ON
THE ISLAND OF JAVA.

1775—8.

BOOK III.

CHAPTER I.

Situation of Java.—Face of the Country.—The North Coast.—The South Coast less known.—Weather.—Rivers.—Soil.—Agriculture.—Productions.—Upland and lowland Rice.—Pepper—Quantities furnished to the Company.—Sugar—Chiefly encouraged and manufactured in Jacatra.—Number of Sugar-mills.—Their estimated annual Income.—Sugar-works, and Method of making Sugar.—Different Qualities of it.—Coffee—Quantities and Prices of it.—Cotton.—Quantities and Prices of Cotton-yarn.—Salt—An Article of Trade to Sumatra.—Timber.—Large Forests.—Indigo—Quantities and Prices.—Other Articles.—Minerals.

THE island of Java may with justice be considered as the most precious jewel in the diadem of the Dutch East India Company: it constitutes, together with Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes, the Sunda-islands, and is the southernmost

of them. According to the most recent and best observations it is situated between $5^{\circ} 50'$ and $8^{\circ} 46'$ of south latitude, and extends from $120^{\circ} 5'$ to $129^{\circ} 50'$ longitude east of Teneriffe, full one hundred and eighty Dutch miles in length; and at the broadest part, from the point of Coedoes, near Japara, to the south coast of the province of Mataram, it is about six-and-thirty Dutch miles over. Its longest diameter lies in the direction of w. by N. $\frac{N}{2}$ N. and e. by s. $\frac{W}{2}$ s. To the east it has the island of Bali, from which it is separated by a strait of the same name: to the north it has the large island of Borneo, and those of Billeton and Banca, at the distance of forty or forty five leagues: to the north-west is Sumatra, from which it is divided by the Straits of Sunda; these are no more than seven leagues over at the narrowest part, namely, from the Varkens, or Hog-point, to the opposite land of Bantam, and they are here still more contracted by the island Dwars-in-den-weg, or Thwart-the-way, which lies in the middle of the passage: to the west and south its shores are washed by the southern ocean.

A chain of high mountains, commencing to the east, in the province of Balambouang, and running through it to the westward, gradually decreasing in height, divides this island, longitudinally, into two parts, of which the northern

portion is the largest and the best. The north coast has almost every where a low and woody foreland; although it has hills in some places, for instance, a little to the west of Bantam, where the high land stretches down to the sea-coast.

The island has several deep inlets, or bays, on this north side, as those of Bantam, Batavia, Cheribon, Samarang, Joana, and Sourabaya, where there is good anchorage, in little depths. Indeed the whole coast affords both good anchoring-ground and a safe road for the vessels which pass and repass, during the good or south-east monsoon; but in the bad monsoon, when the north-west wind blows hard, and raises a high sea, it is dangerous to anchor near the coast, which is then almost uniformly a lee shore.

The southern coasts of Java are much less known than the northern, for the Company have not hitherto taken much trouble to have them examined; so that the greater part of what is ascertained concerning them, is gathered from the scattered information of the navigators who have accidentally sailed along them*.

* In Valentyn's map of Java, which contains five sheets and a half of large paper, the southern coasts of Java are laid down according to great accuracy; the appearance of the land is every where described, and the track of some navigator who coasted along it at a very short distance, from Prince's Island

In the good monsoon, the sky is almost always clear, though sometimes in the evening a thunder-cloud comes down over the mountains: but this does not frequently happen, except near the time of the breaking up of the monsoon, when many violent thunder-storms rapidly succeed each other.

In the bad monsoon, the prevailing west winds bring with them heavy rains and violent thunder-storms; yet this makes but little alteration in the degrees of heat or cold; in the warmest part of the day, the thermometer generally stands at between 82° and 88° , and is seldom higher.

This degree of heat, if accompanied by a motionless state of the air, would, by continuance, become intolerable; but all-bountiful Nature has afforded her aid to the gasping inhabitants of this torrid clime, by the alternate land and sea breezes, which blow here every day, in regular rotation; and if they do not wholly moderate the excessive heat, yet they render it more supportable, and not very uncomfortable to those who make no considerable stay here.

to Balambouang, with his soundings, anchorages, nature of the bottom, &c. is marked down in it; but it does not appear when, or by whom, this voyage was performed, though, from its direction, it appears probable that it was undertaken by the command of the Company, for the express purpose of exploring the south side of Java.

The weight of the air is nearly the same throughout the year; the barometer seldom varies more than two or three lines; but the air does not seem to possess so much elasticity as in the northern regions. Experiments in electricity do not succeed here so well as in Europe.

Java is watered by a great number of rivers, which all descend from the chain of mountains which divides the island; but none of them are navigable for ships, or large vessels, on account of their insignificance, and of the bars before their mouths, and upon most of which there is little more than one foot depth at low-water. The most considerable is that of Joana, and the Sédani or Tangerang.

The soil is almost every where a reddish granulated clay, which, during the dry season, can be little tilled, by reason of its hardness, without a great deal of moistening.

The labour bestowed upon it is very trifling, in comparison with the bountiful fertility of the land in the production of various articles of necessity, luxury, and commercial importance.

Ploughing is performed here, as in most parts of India, with buffaloes, which are numerous. The plough consists of a beam, or pole, eight feet in length, to which, about three feet from the fore-end, is fixed a piece of wood, somewhat crooked and sharp-pointed: this breaks

the soil, which is afterwards turned over by a triangular iron of upwards of nine inches in breadth. One or two buffaloes yoked to it, and a Chinese, or Javanese, who guides the plough, leisurely perform the work of tillage.

No manure is used for the land, at least inasmuch as regards the fields employed in more extended purposes of agriculture; garden-grounds, however, are moistened with water in which oil-cakes have been soaked; which emits a most horrid excrementitious odour, but renders the soil rich and fat. The only trouble taken with the land, consists in burning upon it all the weeds and rubbish which it produces; and when one piece of ground ceases to yield sufficient crops, another is resorted to, and the first is suffered to lie fallow for several years, after which it becomes again fertile of itself.

The articles produced in the island of Java are far greater in value than those of all the neighbouring countries; they chiefly consist of the following:

In the first place, rice, which, for abundance, excellence, and flavour, excels all other countries; and it not only produces sufficient for the support of its own inhabitants, but also provides the eastern provinces and Ceylon. There are two species of it; one, which, when planted, is set nearly under water, so that the tops just ap-

pear above the surface, as the rice-plants would otherwise die, or be destroyed; for, being too weak to stand against the wind by itself, the plant requires the surrounding water to support it. The other sort, which is planted in the rainy season, on high ground, and upon the mountains, receives the necessary moisture solely from the rains; but it is not so good as the former sort. The lowland rice is called *sawa*, and is planted in May; while the upland rice, denominated *tipar*, is planted in November, and reaped in March; and these two crops bear some analogy to the winter and summer grain with us: the upland rice does not yield so great an increase as the other. These two sorts of rice are always kept separate, and will not grow together. Mr. Marsden terms the upland rice *laddang*, and the lowland *sarwoor*. The former, he says, bears the higher price, being a whiter, heartier, and better flavoured grain, and having the advantage in point of keeping. The latter is much more prolific from the seed, and subject to less risk in the culture, but is of a watery substance, produces less increase in boiling, and is subject to a swifter decay. It is, however, in more common use than the former. Besides this general distinction, the rice of each sort, particularly the upland, presents a variety of species.

In general, it may be observed that the larger grained rice is less esteemed than the smaller and whiter. The upland sort is also called *paddee goenong*, or mountain-rice. It was one of the objects of our government in sending Captain Bligh to the South Sea, to procure seeds of this mountain-rice; and notwithstanding his disasters he obtained some from Timor, which were forwarded to His Majesty's botanic garden at St. Vincent, and to other parts of the West Indies, where it is now cultivated with success.

The pepper from Java is an article which, next to the finer spices, yields, perhaps, the greatest proportional advantage to the Company; for though there are more parts where it is produced, and whence it is brought into the Company's warehouses, namely, the coast of Malabar, the west coast of Sumatra, Palembang, and Borneo, yet the greatest quantity of what the Company receive, is produced in the country of Bantam, and its dependent provinces on the opposite coast of Sumatra, as appears from the following list of what pepper was received at Batavia and Onrust, in 1776-1777, viz.

from Bantam and Lampong,	black pepper	3,714,000 lb.
	white ditto	15,000
Borneo,	black ditto	1,117,375
	white ditto	16,250

from Palembang, - - -	black pepper	497,507 lb.
West coast of Sumatra, -	ditto ditto	1,119,436
Province of Jaccatra, -	ditto ditto	1,900

Sugar is by far the chief produce of the province of Jaccatra ; and although Cheribon, and the north-east coast of Java, annually produce considerable quantities of it, they cannot rival Jaccatra in this respect ; and no wonder, for the culture of it was early cherished by the higher powers in Jaccatra. The cultivators of the sugar-cane enjoy many exemptions of pecuniary imposts, and they have been encouraged by every means, not only by the government of Batavia, but likewise by positive orders from the chamber of seventeen in Holland, under date 20th of June 1710.

On the other hand, the cultivation and manufacture of sugar has never been prosecuted with vigour, nor suitably encouraged, on the north-eastern coast. The various plans of improvement which have been suggested, have never been made any use of ; and the last, which was presented to the governor-general Van der Parra, in the year 1774, by the resident of Japara, Mr. Van der Beke, and which contained many very good things, was never taken any notice of. Nay, so far from any encouragement being held out, the importation of sugar at Batavia, from the north-eastern coast of Java, has been almost

interdicted to private merchants, by a heavy duty of one rupee per picol, which was solely laid upon it in order to favour the sugar-mills in the province of Jaccatra and the Preanger lands; and thus, the discountenancing of the manufacture of sugar in the other parts of Java, is, probably, the cause why the common Java sugar has never attained the quality of that of Jaccatra, the latter being much more substantial and better granulated.

In the year 1710, there were one hundred and thirty-one sugar-mills in Jaccatra; their number, however, decreased considerably before, during, and after the war of Java; so that at the end of December 1750, there were no more than seventy-seven, of which only sixty-six were in a condition to work; these, with seven in the kingdom of Bantam, eight in that of Cheribon, and thirteen in the province of the north-eastern coast of Java, made the number of sugar-mills existing at that time in the whole island of Java, one hundred and five; but at present, 1777, they are still more diminished.

Mr. Mossel has made a calculation what profit these seventy-seven sugar-mills, in the province of Jaccatra, might annually yield to their proprietors, or lessees: he reckoned that a yearly quantity of ten million pounds weight of sugar

might be produced by them, which he took at four rixdollars per picol, is . . rixd. 320,000 and an equal quantity of molasses, from which afterwards, either an inferior sugar is made, or arrack distilled, at one rixdollar per picol, . . 80,000

together, rixdollars 400,0000

upwards of 87,000% sterling, or nearly 120% for each sugar-mill. The whole may be more amply seen by referring to his "Observations on the Sugar-works in the Neighbourhood of Batavia, &c." dated the 31st of December 1750.

The sugar-cane, which in general grows here very luxuriantly, is planted from September to April, and stands twelve or fifteen months in the field, according as the land be rich or poor, before it is cut. If the soil be good, and adapted to its cultivation, it can be cut four times; on some grounds less often, and on others only once.

The sugar-works here, are not so well or so solidly constructed, as those in the West Indies. The cane is here bruised between two rollers, and is therefore twice put through before all the juice is expressed; the sugar-mills in the West Indies have three rollers, so that the same quantity of cane can be pressed in half the time taken for it here: the latter mode, however, requires a greater degree of strength; one or two buffaloes

are here sufficient, but at least four horses are required there for turning the mills.

The juice is twice boiled, and afterwards put into pots, upon which a layer of clay, diluted with water, and kneaded into a paste, is laid, and it continues in this state for about twenty days: during this time the clay is once or twice renewed; and by this operation the sugar acquires a tolerable degree of whiteness; it is then set in the drying-place, which is a shed, covered with *atap*, where it remains until it is perfectly dry, and the molasses have entirely trickled out of it, through an opening at the bottom.

When a sugar-mill is in good condition, and has no want of work-people, or of buffaloes, about fifteen thousand canes can be bruised every four-and-twenty hours; these yield from nine to eleven pots, containing each fifty pounds weight of sugar of the first and second qualities, twelve pounds of the third quality, and from sixteen to twenty pounds of molasses.

Mr. Mossel calculated that all the canes which the sixty-seven sugar-mills annually consumed, covered four thousand six hundred *morgen*, 9200 acres, of land, to which adding the same quantity of four thousand six hundred *morgen*, for pasture-ground for the buffaloes, and ten thousand *morgen* for wood for fuel, the

whole extent of ground wanted for the prosecution of that manufacture, with that number of mills, would not amount to twenty thousand *morgen*, 40,000 acres, which is but a small part of the province of Jaccatra, north of the mountains.

The first quality of the sugar differs only from the second and third by its greater whiteness. The first sort is that which is alone sent to Europe; the second goes chiefly to the western parts of India; and the third, which is the brownest, to Japan. There is likewise another sort, which is very brown, and much less dry; it is called *dispens-sugar*, because it is mostly delivered by the *dispensiers*, or purveyors, from the provision-warehouses of the Company, to be used on board of their ships.

Coffee is likewise a product yielding much profit to Java, and great advantage to the Company. The cultivation of it is performed in the same manner as in the West India islands. Jaccatra and Cheribon are the two districts where it is most vigorously prosecuted, though the article is equally grown on the north-eastern coast. Java, where it is not indigenous, is indebted for this production to Mr. Zwaardekroon, who was governor-general from the year 1718 to 1725, and who procured the coffee-plant from Mocha, and after paying a very high price for what was

first produced, fifteen rixdollars per picol, he continued to encourage the cultivation of it by all the means in his power. His endeavours were so well seconded by his successors, that in the year 1753, 1,200,000 pounds weight of coffee were furnished from Cheribon, at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ stivers per pound; and full as much from Jaccatra and the Preanger lands at $\frac{1}{2}$ stivers per pound: and, in the sequel, the quantity produced grew so large, that in the year 1768, the quantity of 4,465,500 pounds weight of coffee, was delivered to the Company from Jaccatra and the Preanger lands, at the reduced rate of four rixdollars per picol of one hundred and twenty-five pounds, 14s. 5d. per cwt.; although the native cultivator must deliver one hundred and sixty pounds for a picol, which excess in the weight is an emolument partly accruing to the commissary of inland affairs, and partly to the administrators in the warehouses.

But the reason why Jaccatra appears to furnish so large a proportion of coffee, is, that a considerable quantity of this produce which is grown in the parts of the province of Cheribon nearest to Jaccatra, come down through the last-mentioned country to Batavia: the income of the commissary for inland affairs is hereby greatly enhanced, and it is pretended, that it is more convenient to the natives.

Cotton is likewise the production of Java. The shrub, *gossypium herbaceum*, which produces it, is cultivated in almost every part of the island by the natives; the kingdom of Bantam, however, excepted, where little of it is found; so that the yarn which is spun of it, in the province of Cheribon, and other parts, yields a considerable degree of gain, on being clandestinely imported into Bantam.

The Company, to whom the greater part of it is delivered, pay for it, according to its qualities, forty-five, thirty-five, twenty-four, and less six-dollars per picol of one hundred and twenty-five pounds; equal to the respective rates of $17\frac{1}{2}d.$ $13\frac{1}{2}d.$ and $9\frac{1}{4}d.$ sterling per pound.

Jaccatra and the Preanger lands furnished in the year 1753, the quantity of about two hundred picols, or twenty-five thousand pounds of cotton-yarn; and in 1768, no more than 133 picols, or 16,225 pounds. The greater part of the cotton-yarn is sent to Holland; the rest is employed by the natives in weaving cloths for their own consumption.

Attempts have likewise been made to introduce the manufacture of cotton cloths, as an article of trade for the Company, and to supersede part of their large importations of the article from Hindostan; but hitherto with very little success.

Java also produces salt, though it is not an

article of very extensive commercial importance. Most of it is brought from Rembang, where the Company purchase it at the rate of six rixdollars per five thousand pounds, and they export it to the west coast of Sumatra, where it is disposed of, generally, at the rate of between thirty and thirty-five rixdollars for three thousand pounds weight, which is equal to about 10s. 10d. sterling per ton English, and the selling price from 91s. 8d. to 107s. per ton.

The north-eastern coast, and part of the district of Cheribon, furnish a very large quantity of timber, logs, beams, boards, knees, &c. which is not only sufficient for the consumption of Batavia, for ship-building, houses, and domestic uses, but a very considerable quantity of it is annually exported to several of the out-factories, and, in particular, to the Cape of Good Hope.

The large forests in the above districts, belong to the Company; the natives are obliged to fell and prepare the timber, as a kind of feudal service, so that no other emolument is made by them, on this score, than the hire of the draft-oxen by which it is conveyed to the sea-shore; and this, together with the freight by sea, forms the whole of the purchase-money and charges of the timber. Those forests, however, begin to be considerably diminished.

Next is reckoned indigo, which although not an original production of Java, has been cultivated with tolerable success, since the Company have been established here; insomuch that, whereas formerly that article was obliged to be sent for from the empire of the Great Mogul, and special *firmons* were obtained, with some difficulty, for that purpose, that trade has now been abandoned in Hindostan, and instead of being purchasers, the Company have been able to be sellers of a considerable quantity of the article.

The Company pay for the first quality thirty stivers per pound, and in proportion for the second and third qualities. The indigo is sorted upon its delivery at Batavia, by a person specially appointed for that purpose. In the year 1768, Jaccatra furnished 2875 pounds of indigo, though the inhabitants have been assessed at the quantity of 6125 pounds.

Turmeric, *curcuma*, long-pepper, *piper longum*, and cubebs, *piper cubeba*, are also productions of Java; but the collection and exportation of these articles is not of great importance. The two last are most in demand for Surat.

Of minerals and metals, Java can make boast of none but a little iron-ore and star-stones, *asterias*, called in the Malay tongue, or by the natives, *maasouren*.

CHAPTER II.

Division of Java.—General Population.—Bantam.—Boundaries.—Government.—Population.—Dependencies.—Country of Lampon.—The Company's Establishment at Bantam.—Expenses.—Islands in the Straits of Sunda, &c.—Peculiar Unhealthiness of Bantam.—Jaccatra, and its Preanger Lands.—Boundaries.—Population.—Administration.—Rivers.—The Mookervaaert.—Canals and Drains cut by the Dutch.—Productions.—Cheribon.—Boundaries.—Population.—Productions.—Establishment.—Expenses and Profits.—Empire of the Soesoehoenam.—Former Extent and Grandeur.—Present reduced Situation.—Dominions of the Sultan.—Island of Madura.—Titles of the reigning Soesoehoenam, and Sultan.—Political Relations of the Company with these Princes.

WHEN the Company first established themselves here, Java was divided into three large empires, namely, Bantam, Jaccatra, and the empire of the Soesoehoenam, which last was the most extensive, and comprehended full two thirds of the whole island, Cheribon being feudatory to it, Times have now so far altered, that the

island is divided into five states, or empires, which altogether contain one hundred and twenty-three provinces, or governments, amongst which the kingdom of Bantam is considered but as one.

Each province, or government, consists of a certain number of *tjatjars*, or families, the number of which, throughout the whole of Java, including Bantam, amounted, in the year 1777, to 152,014.

These are calculated, upon an average, throughout Java, to consist of two men, two women, and two children, forming, therefore, a population of souls 912,084*

But if to this we add the inhabitants

of the principality of Madura,
which, though a separate island, is
always taken together with Java,
and which contains ten thousand
families, or souls 60,000

the whole population of Java and Ma-

dura will amount to 972,084

* Huysers gives the population of Java, exclusive of Madura, as follows, viz.

in the kingdom of Bantam	5,000	tjatjars, or families
in Jaccatra	33,914	ditto
in Cheribon	15,000	ditto
in the Mataram, or empire		
of Java proper	94,200	ditto

assuredly a very slender number of inhabitants for such an extensive island. It was formerly much more populous; but the long and bloody wars with which this country has been afflicted, for nearly a century and a half, before the Company succeeded in establishing themselves in that firm manner in which their power here is at present rooted, is sufficient to remove our surprise at the paucity of the inhabitants of this extremely fertile island. The last war waged against the empire of the Soesochoenam seems, in particular, to have produced a great degree of depopulation. According to the statement of the population made in the year 1738, the number of families in the territories of the Soesochoenam alone amounted to 309,700, or souls 1,858,200, and at present (1777), the same lands,

which were then under the dominion of the Soesochoenam, part of which are now, however, taken from him, contain no more than

118,100 families, or 708,600

1,149,600

in all 148,114 families, reckoned at six individuals each, makes the whole number of inhabitants 888,684; but he adds, in a note, that, according to more recent accounts, the population of Java is calculated at one million and a half, or two millions, of people. These statements, however, do not include the inhabitants of Batavia.

making a difference of more than the half, which would appear too improbable for belief, were the statement not made on inspection of authentic documents*.

The actual five divisions of Java are, Bantam, Jaccatra, Cheribon, the empire of the Soesoehoenam, and that of the Sultan.

The kingdom of Bantam, which forms the

* Valentyn's statement of the population of Java, in his time, shows a still greater disproportion; his account, in which he takes every *tjatjar*, or family, at five persons only, gives—

in the kingdom of Bantam, exclusive of the city of Bantam . . . families	5,000, or persons	40,850
in Jaccatra, exclusive of Batavia . . . ditto	19,390, or ditto	96,950
in Cheribon and its dependencies . . . ditto	63,120, or ditto	305,600
in the countries belonging to the emperor of Mataram, or the Soesoehoenam . . . ditto	483,570, or ditto	2,417,850
in the county of Balam-bouang, a rough calculation, full . . . ditto	50,000, or ditto	300,000
and in the island of Madura about . . . ditto	30,000, or ditto	150,000

Total 3,311,250

A decrease in this island from upwards of three millions to less than one million of people, in about sixty years, is an amazing instance of the destructive agency of war.

western division of Java, is about one hundred Dutch miles in circumference, each being of twelve hundred Rhineland roods. The Indian ocean washes it on the south; to the north-west and north it has the straits of Sunda, and their islands; to the east, it is divided from the empire of Jaccatra, by a narrow slip of land, called Grending, lying a little to the westward of the Sedani, or river of Tangerang, and by a chain of mountains, known by the name of Goenong Tjeberum, which terminate to the south in the bay of Wynkoopsbergen.

Bantam became strictly connected with the Company, in the year 1680, by means of the assistance afforded by them against Sultan Agon, who had formerly abdicated the throne, but who had resumed the sceptre; his son solicited and obtained the aid of the Company, toward establishing him in the government. The country remained, in a manner, independent, and its trade continued free; but upon this, encroachments were practised from time to time, and it was sought to draw the bands of connexion with Bantam closer, by giving assistance, towards reducing the revolted province of Succadana, in Borneo, which formerly belonged to Bantam, and is still an appendage of that kingdom. At last, in 1751, Bantam became wholly a fief of the Company, occasioned by the fortunate issue

of the commotions there; the king was then privately taken hold of, and continued a prisoner, while a prince of the blood-royal, who had been kept in exile at Ceylon, was exalted to the throne in his stead; and a yearly tribute of one hundred bhars of pepper, amounting to thirty-seven thousand five hundred pounds weight, is now paid to the Company from Bantam.

The rule of succession was, at the desire of the king, regulated by the Company, who choose and appoint the heir apparent to be hereditary prince, as was done in the year 1767: this hereditary prince succeeded to his deceased father in the month of September 1777, and was formally crowned as king of Bantam, by Mr. Breton, the minister plenipotentiary deputed by the Company for that purpose.

Although the sultan, or king, of Bantam, is a vassal of the Company, he is, nevertheless, a sovereign prince, lord and master of life and death, and uncontrolled in his authority over his own subjects; he lays taxes, augments or lightens them, according to his own good pleasure; and has all other regalia, and marks of sovereignty, appertaining to a free monarch, excepting that he is restricted from entering into any alliances or engagements, either with the European or Indian princes; as likewise from selling the productions

of his territories to any other than to the Company.

Bantam has the smallest population of all the divisions of Java; its whole extent comprehends no more than five thousand tjatjars, or families, and, consequently, only thirty thousand inhabitants.

The Company keep in Fort Speelwyck, including the guard which is stationed at Fort Diamond, an establishment amounting, when complete, to three hundred men.

In 1776-1777, the establishment of the Dutch Company at Bantam consisted of twenty civil servants, one clergyman, five surgeons and assistants, seventeen belonging to the artillery, thirty seamen, 199 soldiers, and ten mechanics; in all 282 Europeans. On account of its vicinity to Batavia, no revenues, whether territorial or commercial, are drawn from this place; but the charges of the establishment are not heavy: in 1779 they amounted to about 7115 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling, which is nothing in comparison with the benefit derived from the pepper furnished by Bantam. To the dominion of the king of Bantam belong all the islands in the straits of Sunda, from Prince's Island to Pulo Babi, or Hog Island, close to his capital city. Many of them are inhabited, and produce pepper; others are desert, or the resort of pirates and smugglers, who are

dexterous in carrying on an illicit trade in pepper with foreign nations. In November 1769, the Dutch Company's cruising grab *Zeeleeuw*, the *Sea Lion*, was attacked, taken, and the crew massacred, in the bay of Lampon, by these pirates. The Klapper, or Cocoa Islands, which lie on the south coast of Java, near the straits of Sunda, are uninhabited, and are only occasionally resorted to for the sake of the edible birds'-nests which are found there; but they are said to be greatly infested with enormous snakes. Prince's Island is called, in the Malay language, *Pulo Selan*; and in the language of its inhabitants, *Pulo Pancitan*. It is woody, and a very small part of it only has been cleared. Valentyn landed on it in 1694, and found it then uninhabited. He adds, that there is good anchorage in the south-west bay, in nine and ten fathoms, and two small fresh-water rivulets running into it. Lieutenant Cook, in the *Endeavour*, lay ten days on the south-east side, in eighteen fathoms. There is a town upon it, called Samadang, of about four hundred houses, divided into two parts, by a river of brackish water. There is no remarkable hill upon it, yet the English call the highest eminence the Pike. It was formerly much frequented by the India ships of many nations, especially the English, which have, of late, forsaken it, as it is said, because the water

is bad, and touch either at North Island, a small island that lies on the coast of Sumatra, at the east entrance of the straits, or at New Bay, which lies only a few leagues from Prince's Island, at neither of which places any considerable quantity of other refreshments can be procured. At Prince's Island may be had turtle, with which the first, the second, and perhaps the third, ship in the season, may be tolerably supplied; those bought by the Endeavour's people cost, upon an average, a halfpenny or three farthings per pound; large fowls, a dozen for a Spanish dollar; small deer, not larger than a rabbit, two-pence apiece; larger deer, about the size of a sheep, but of which only two were brought down, a rupee; many kinds of fish, tolerably cheap; cocoa-nuts, at the rate of a hundred for a dollar, if picked, or one hundred and thirty, if taken promiscuously; plantains in great plenty; some pine-apples, water-melons, jacks, and pumpkins; besides rice, the greater part of which is of the mountain kind, yams, and several other vegetables, at very reasonable rates. The other islands in the straits of Sunda, appertaining to the dominions of Bantam, are too insignificant for particular description. They are mostly level, founded upon beds of coral, and covered with trees. A few, however, have steep and naked sides, such as the island Dwars in den

Weg, or Thwart-the-way, and the two very small round ones, called by the Dutch Brabandsch Hoedje, and Toppers Hoedje, and by the English the Cap and Button. The gentlemen accompanying Lord Macartney in the *Lion*, had occasion to visit the two last mentioned; they were so steep and rugged, that it was difficult to get ashore: at a little distance, they might be taken for the remains of old castles, mouldering into ruins, with tall trees already growing upon the tops; but, upon a nearer view, they betrayed evident marks of a volcanic origin: in the Cap were found two caverns, running horizontally into the side of the rock, in which were a number of those birds' nests so much prized by the Chinese epicures. The situation of these places was, on that occasion, determined with the greatest nicety, viz.

	South lat.	East long. from London.
Thwart-the-way	5° 55' 0" . .	105° 43' 0"
North Island . . .	5 38 0 . .	105 43 30
Cap	5 58 30 . .	105 48 30
Button	5 49 0 . .	105 48 30

The air is, in general, here very unhealthy, and the mortality considerable. In the year 1768, that is, from the beginning of September to the end of August, out of the complete number of the Company's servants, including pennists, mariners, and military, being three hundred and

seventeen, the deaths amounted to sixty, about one in five.

The division which follows next in geographical order, is that of Jaccatra, with its Preanger lands; Preanger lands is the denomination given to those districts which did not originally belong to the kingdom of Jaccatra, but which have been united to the Company's possessions since the year 1677: with respect to their administration, they are divided between Batavia, and the residency of Cheribon.

This division is full one hundred and ten Dutch miles in circumference. To the west it borders upon Bantam, with the districts of Groending, Badak, and Pagadongan; to the south, upon the Southern ocean, for the most part with the district of Jampas, and partly with that of Sockapoura, belonging to the Cheribon Preanger lands; to the east, upon the government of Cheribon itself, with the districts of Timpangapten, Samadang, Pagadeen, and Pamanockang; to the north, upon the sea, with the districts of Pamanockang, Tjassen, Crawang, and that of Jaccatra proper, under Batavia.

The country of Jaccatra, with its Preanger lands, comprises, upon the whole, thirty districts, containing together 33,914 *tjatjars*, or families, or 203,544 inhabitants, of which the district of Batavia alone contains 19,469 families,

or 116,814 inhabitants; this shows that the other districts are proportionally much less populous, whereby a great extent of capital land remains uncultivated and neglected, and even what is silled is owing to the industry and perseverance of the Chinese settlers.

The paucity of inhabitants in the country of Jaccatra, cannot, like that in the empire of the Soesoeboenam, be attributed to the ravages of a destructive war; for Jaccatra has, since the last siege of Batavia, in the year 1625, been very little subject to that calamity, except in the insurrection of the Chinese, in the year 1740, when even the Javans of Jaccatra were the least concerned in it; but it may principally be ascribed to the circumstance, that, after the arms of the Company were victorious over the kingdom of Jaccatra, and they had taken the capital, having likewise defeated the army of Bantam; all the inhabitants of the country were carried away into the kingdom of Bantam; whereby Jaccatra remained, for a considerable space of time, nearly uninhabited.

It appears, however, according to Mr. Mossel, that these lands contained only, in the year 1753, the number of one hundred and fifty thousand souls; so that, in opposition to the other parts of Java, the population has here been considerably augmented.

Every district has its regent, who is appointed immediately by the supreme Indian government at Batavia. These regents decide in civil matters of little importance, but affairs of consequence they must lay before the commissary of inland affairs, or the governor-general.

Jaccatra is watered and fertilized by several rivers, most of which, however, are no better than rivulets, in the good or dry season. The largest of these are the Sedani, or the river of Tangerang, and that of Crawang; they descend from the high mountains inland, and flow into the sea, in a northerly direction.

The river of Tangerang runs into the sea, not far from the point of Ontong Java, and near its mouth is a small post of the Company, called the Kwal. Just below that post, the river gives a part of its water to the Moekervaart, a canal cut from that place to Batavia, in order to provide the canals and moats of the city with water; but as, in the rainy season, this river swells very high, and too much would then be conveyed through that cut to the city, a lock was made, in the year 1770, at the upper end of the Moekervaart, which cost full 15,270*l*. whereby no more water than is wanted is suffered to come to Batavia.

It is not the water alone of the river of Tangerang which supplies this canal, but likewise

that of the rivers of Ankee, Passangarang, and Grogol; and it is through the Mookervart that Batavia receives most of its water; for that which comes down by what is called the great river of Jaccatra, is very trifling in comparison with this. The drain, called the Slokhaan (the glutton, or cormorant), which was dug in the year 1746, a little to the eastward of the river of Jaccatra, receives the water from the upper grounds, and thus deprives it of its greatest force. The conformation of the country likewise requires that Batavia should receive its water from the westward, as, on that side, it is more elevated than on the other.

The Dutch seem to have pitched upon Batavia for the convenience of water-carriage; and, in that respect, it is, indeed, a second Holland, and superior to every other place in the world. There are very few streets in the city without a canal of considerable breadth running through, or rather stagnating in them, and continued for several miles beyond the town, intersecting, together with five or six rivers, in almost every direction, the dead flat in which it is situated; nor is this the worst, for the fence of every field and garden is a ditch; and interspersed among the cultivated ground, are many filthy fens, bogs, and morasses, as well fresh as salt; nay, such is the influence of habit, both upon the taste and

understanding, that Governor-general Van der Parra, whose country-house was situated upon the only rising ground near Batavia, contrived, at some trouble and expense, to inclose his own garden with a ditch.

The rivers, the Sontar, the Bacassie, and the Tjikarang, fall into the sea to the east of Batavia.

The productions of Jacatra are principally coffee, sugar, and rice; likewise indigo, cotton-yarn, turmeric, and cadjang, or lentiles, from which last oil is pressed. In 1778 were sold in Holland the following articles, being productions of the colony of Jacatra:

2,000,000 *lbs.* of sugar, at four stivers.

2,000,000 *lbs.* of coffee, at eleven ditto.

500,000 *lbs.* of pepper, at seventeen ditto.

100 leagers of arrack.

10,000 *lbs.* of candied ginger.

cotton-yarn to the amount of *f.* 20,000, and

indigo, to the amount of *f.* 1000.

This may be taken as the annual quantity of what Jacatra is able to furnish for Europe, and the gain upon these articles is considerable, as none of them cost much; the pepper and coffee scarcely $2\frac{1}{2}$, and the sugar $1\frac{1}{2}$ stivers per pound. Of sugar, the Company further dispose every year of full four millions of pounds weight in Japan, Surat, the Malabar, and other establishments, upon which they likewise make consider-

able profits ; and about the same quantity, four million pounds, is exported in private trade, together with immense quantities of arrack, rice, and other articles. The revenues and expenses of Jaccatra are included in those of Batavia.

The Company possess this empire by right of conquest, having taken it from its king, who was obliged to yield to their arms in the year 1619 ; and Batavia was founded on or near the site of his capital city, Jaccatra.

The third division of Java is Cheribon, which, together with its Preanger lands, may be about half the size of Jaccatra and its dependencies. It borders, to the west, upon Jaccatra, with the districts of Limbangan, Tjauris, Iopanagara, and Indramayo ; to the south, upon the Southern ocean, with the district of Soekapoura ; to the east, upon the province of Banjoemaas, or Panjoemag, belonging to the sultan, with the district of Soekapoura, upon the country of the Soesochoenam, with the districts of Oetame and Gabang, and upon the strand-regency of Brebes, with the district of Lassary ; and to the north, upon the sea, with the district of Gabang and those of Cheribon proper, and Indramayo.

It comprises in all nine districts, containing full fifteen thousand *tjetjars*, or families, being *sikapo*, or fixed inhabitants, besides the *boedjungs*, or unmarried, and strangers.

These lands are divided between two princes, the sultan Anom Sopoeh Cheribon, and the Panam Bahan, both of whom are feudatories of the Company. Of the last it is a rule that the children succeed to the father in his dignity, provided they are inclined to do so; and if they do not choose to be burdened with the cares of authority, they have the right of nominating a deputy to exercise their hereditary power in their stead.

Formerly there were three princes of Cheribon; but in the year 1769, one of them not treating his subjects well, was exiled by the supreme government to Amboyna, where he still remained in 1775.

These princes are obliged to deliver all the produce of their country for certain fixed prices, exclusively to the Company; and neither the princes nor their subjects are allowed to have any communication with strangers, much less to carry on trade with foreign nations in any of the articles produced upon their lands. On the part of the Company, as much care is taken as possible to prevent the contravention of these conditions; and they have a resident here, with a garrison of seventy Europeans, stationed in a small fort in the district of Cheribon, whilst there is also an out-post stationed at Indramayo.

This empire put itself under the protection of

the Company in the year 1680. In criminal matters the administration is under the combined authority of the two princes and the Company's resident.

Its productions are coffee, timber, cotton-yarn, areca, indigo, sugar, and also a little pepper: this last article grew formerly here in such abundance, that in the year 1680, the *blar* of three hundred and seventy-five pounds was paid for at the rate of no more than ten Spanish dollars, about 16s. per cwt. Cheribon contributes many important articles to the consumption of India, and to the European trade. It yields yearly, for the former, at least one thousand lasts of rice, and one million pounds of sugar at $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 stivers per pound; and for Europe at least 30,000 *lbs.* of cotton-yarn, of letter A, at 14 stivers (1s. 3d.), 10,000 *lbs.* of indigo, at 30 stivers (2s. 9d.), and 1,200,000 *lbs.* of coffee, at 2½ stivers. Yet in 1778; no more than one million pounds of the Cheribon coffee were sold in Holland at eleven stivers per pound. The intrinsic revenues of this settlement are amply sufficient to defray the charges. In 1779 the last amounted to f. 12,584, and the former to f. 35,761, showing a favourable balance of f. 23,177, or 2107*l.* sterling. In 1776-7, the establishment of Cheribon consisted of ninety-eight Europeans; namely, fourteen civil servants;

one clergyman, three surgeons, two artillerymen, fifteen seamen, sixty soldiers, and three mechanics. The resident at Cheribon is said to make no less than 70,000 rixdollars, upwards of 15,000*l.* sterling per annum.

Before the war of 1740 the Soesoehoenam, or emperor of Java, as he was called, was sole proprietor of all the country eastward of the last-mentioned empire of Cheribon, which was the western boundary of that of the Soesoehoenam. This comprised all the rest of the island, and was inclosed, on the other sides, by the sea and the narrow straits which separate Java from the islands of Bali and Madura. It extended in length, from east to west, one hundred Dutch miles, and in breadth, upon an average, about five-and-twenty. It contained fifty-six provinces, or districts, large and small; and three hundred and nine thousand seven hundred *liatjers*, or families. After that period thirty of those provinces, all situated on the sea-coast, were ceded to the Company for an equivalent in money, and seven, amongst which was Mataram, to the sultan Manko Boeni. This empire, once so formidable to the Company, is now so reduced in power and extent, that its monarch can at present, 1777, enumerate no more than sixteen provinces under his dominion, containing only thirty-three thousand two hundred *liatjers*, or families.

The dominions which fell to the lot of the sultan Manko Boeni, who is still living, consist of seven provinces, interspersed between those which have remained with the Soesochoenam; and this intermixture of the territories of these two monarchs, makes them individually much more feeble than if the possessions of each were adjacent, and formed one compact country.

The seven provinces belonging to the sultan contain, together, fifteen thousand eight hundred *hadjars*, or families; the most extensive and most important is that of Mataram, which is washed by the Southern ocean.

Although the principality of Madura is now solely confined to the island of that name, which lies to the north-east of Java, from which it is separated by a narrow strait of scarcely a league and a half over, it has always been reckoned to belong to the government of the north-eastern coast of Java: the whole island is divided into three districts, and contains thirty thousand *hadjars*, or families; it is thirty Dutch miles in length, and upon an average scarcely six in breadth.

All these princes possess their dominions as vassals of the Company, whose pretensions to the paramount authority are grounded upon a voluntary cession of all his dominions, alleged to have been made in favour of the Company by

the late deceased Soesoehocnam, upon his death-bed, in the year 1746 : this, at least, is what is pretended, for the sake of appearance, as it is otherwise pretty well understood that the emperor was dead before this pretended cession was made known to the grandees of the court ; but this is kept as secret as possible. The empire, thus weakened and diminished, was afterwards given as a fief to one of the princes of the imperial race, to the prejudice of Masseyd ; who, however, was quieted with a certain appanage, and the promise, that if the present Soesoehocnam died without issue, his children, in the right of being the nearest of blood, should succeed to the imperial dignity.

The titles which the reigning Soesoehocnam has assumed are as follows : *Soesachoenam*, monarch or sole ruler ; *Pacoeboeana*, axis of the globe, literally, nail or spike of the earth ; *Senepatty Hiengalaga*, commander in chief of all the armies ; *Abdul Rachman*, holy priest, literally slave of the most merciful God ; *Sahiedien*, sovereign king ; *Panatagama*, prince of the faithful : those of the sultan of Mataram are, *Sultan*, prince or king ; *Hanim Coeboeana*, regent of the world ; *Senepatty Hiengalaga*, *Abdul Rachman*, *Sahiedien*, *Panatagama*, *Calif*, *Attu lach*, vicergerent of the Almighty.

All these princes bound themselves, in the

year 1756, not to deliver any of the products of their respective countries to any other than the Company; and in every case to act both defensively and offensively, in conjunction with the Company, against their enemies.

The provinces have each their regent of their own nation, under the title of *tommagong patti*, who are respectively subordinate to the several residents.

CHAPTER III.

Importance of Java to the Dutch East India Company.—Reflections on the Conduct of the Company towards the native Princes—and their Javanese Subjects.—Necessity of Reform in these Points.

FROM what has preceded, the great importance of the island of Java to the East India Company will have very evidently appeared. It is fertile in productions, which have now, by the progressive increase of luxury in the world, become articles almost of the first necessity, whereby this colony is adequate to bring as much, if not more, wealth into the coffers of the Company than the spice-islands, which have hitherto been considered as the chief means of the prosperity, if not even essential to the existence of that body. But Java can only hope to be equally precious with the spice-islands, by a change of circumstances, by cordial exertions to promote the cultivation of its highly fertile soil with industry and vigour, by ceasing to depress and impoverish the natives by constant injustice and continual extortion, and by avoiding in future every species of war, which, by producing a still greater depopulation, would bring destruction to the Indians and ruin to the Company.

The princes of the country, although sovereign over their own subjects *, are, nevertheless, the one more, and the other less, vassals of the Company; and so far subjected to them, that the mode of succession to their thrones is regulated, and the heirs, of their dignity are nominated, by the Company. The dismemberment of the empire of the Soesoehoenam, and the possession of the sea-coasts, render the Company secure from that power once so formidable, and from the consequences of such prejudicial engagements and alliances, as might be entered into by the native princes, with European powers; and although those princes bow with reluctance to the yoke which has been imposed upon them, they are sufficiently wise to consider, that, if they were even fortunate enough to disengage themselves from their present bondage, their power has been so broken by the depopulation of the country, that, freed from the Dutch Company, they would still be obliged to yield to the first foreign nation which should have the inclination and ability to establish itself upon the island, and perhaps be reduced to a more cruel state of servitude than they now experience

* An instance to the contrary occurs in the last chapter, where we are informed that one of the princes of Cheribon was deposed by the Company for misconduct towards his own subjects.

under their actual taskmasters; of which they have a striking example before them in the Mogul empire.

If, therefore, the government at Batavia were to cherish, protect, and favour as much as possible the several princes of Java, giving them every indulgence in matters of small moment, without suffering any diminution of the power and influence which has been attained over them, these princes would see the sound policy of rather maintaining the Company in their possessions on the island, than allowing them to be transferred to other hands, without opposition on their part.

If it be necessary for the Company to attach these princes to them by the bands of political interest, it is no less an object of importance for their welfare, and perhaps of necessity to their safety, that they equally aim at securing the attachment of their Javanese subjects, by rendering their lives at least supportable, and by opposing and preventing the shameful treatment and crying injustice which these poor people experience at the hands of the governor, residents, and regents. The common Javanese are in an absolute state of slavery: they are no more masters of what little they seem to possess, than an unconditional slave, who, together with all he has, belongs to the master who has purchased him, his labour,

and his posterity. The common Javan is not only obliged, at fixed periods, to deliver a certain quantity of the fruits of his industry to the regent placed over him, in behalf of the Company, for whatever price the latter chooses to allow him, and that price, moreover, paid in goods, which are charged to him at ten times their real value; but he likewise cannot consider what may remain as his own property, not being permitted to do with it what he may think fit, nor allowed to sell it to others at a higher or a lower rate; and he is, on the contrary, compelled to part with this also, as well as what was claimed of him in behalf of the Company, to the same petty tyrant, for himself, at an arbitrary and frequently at an infamous price. The regents experience in their turn, though perhaps in a less iniquitous degree, the oppression of the residents; whilst in the country of Jaccatra, the commissary for inland affairs acts the same part, in a no less unjustifiable manner, under the immediate eye of the governor-general, towards the native regents and common Javanese in that province.

The continually decreasing state of the population in Java, which, from the year 1738 to 1777, has diminished more than one half, may be attributed to the natural operation of this abject state of depression and servitude, in which

the common people of Java live, as well as to the ravages of a war of nearly twenty-five years, to which it has been the custom solely to ascribe it; though this war, and the various civil commotions which have happened besides, have, undoubtedly, greatly contributed to this waste of the human species.

CHAPTER IV.

Character of the Javanese.—Their Indolence, not merely the Result of Climate, but also of the arbitrary Government.—Industry of the Chinese.—Food of the Javanese.—Their Dwellings.—Household Conveniences.—Usual Period of Life.—Peculiar Disease.—Religion.—Mosques.—Mausoleum near Cheribon.—Customs of the Javanese.—Laws respecting Inheritance.—Their Appearance, Dress, &c.

THE JAVANESE are said to be of an indolent disposition, and to require much pains to excite them to labour. This is, in general, true of all the nations who inhabit the torrid zone, and who live under despotic governments, by which they are arbitrarily deprived of their property. But would not this vice, which is represented as a national blemish in the character of the Javanese, be in a great measure amended—would it not be removed, if arrangements were made, that to these miserable people might be left the property and uncontrolled disposition of only that portion of the fruits of their labour which might remain after they have furnished to the Company the quantities and qualities required at their hands? The inhabitants of Java possess, in

common with all the rest of mankind, a natural and innate desire of having the free command and disposal of their own property; and, like others, they would, to obtain this, submit to heavy labour, and be more industrious, in proportion as they had the more certain prospect of earning a property, and of security in the enjoyment of it.

Deprived of the most distant prospect, and not encouraged by any hope of bettering their situation, they sit down sullenly contented, as it were, with the little left to them by their despotic and avaricious masters; who, by this unwise, as well as unfeeling conduct, extinguish every spark of industry, and plunge their subjects into the gloom of hopeless inactivity.

The climate, it is alleged, influences their disposition, and compels them to a life of indolence. But does not the fallacy of this assertion appear in the Chinese who reside here? These inhabit the same island, open their variegated shops next to the dwelling of the Javanese, and till with laborious industry the neglected soil around the wretched habitation of the native. In diligence, perseverance, and manual labour, they surpass many of the industrious classes of the community in Europe; but they are comparatively unshackled, and are free masters of what they can earn by trade, or procure by agri-

culture, beyond the pecuniary or other assessments levied upon them by the government. This encourages them readily to undertake the most laborious occupations, and diligently to persevere in them, while they feel a rational hope of obtaining, in proper time, the reward due to their exertions.

The Javanese, possessing no certain property, are satisfied with little. The usual food of those who inhabit the level country is rice, with a little fish; but those who dwell in the high land, and in the mountains, and who plant little or no rice, make use of a certain root called *tallas*, and some salt, which they make out of the ashes of wood.

Their dwellings are little huts, generally constructed of bamboos, plastered with mud, and covered with *atap*, or other similar leaves.

The conveniencies of household furniture are unknown to them. The whole of the apparatus in their wretched hovels consists of a kind of bedstead, two or three feet from the ground, made of bamboos, one or two pots for boiling their victuals, a hollow block to pound their rice in, and a few cocoanut-shells for drinking-vessels.

Generally speaking, their period of life does not much exceed half a century; and few of them are found to attain the age of threescore.

They are subject to a sort of ulcers, which is a disease peculiar to the island and to its inhabitants, and which has thence received from Europeans the denomination of the Java pox. It is a sort of lues, but of a less malignant nature.

Their religion is that of Mahomed, accompanied by many superstitious opinions and observances, retained from the religion of their idolatrous ancestors. In the interior parts they have no abstract ideas of religion, and can indeed form none but such as arise immediately from the gross observation of their senses. The Mahomedan religion was introduced into Java, by the Arabians.

In the year 1406, Cheik Ibn Molana, otherwise Ibn Israel, an Arabian, who had contributed to the propagation of the Mahomedan faith at Acheen, Johor, and other places in the East, came to Java, and took up his abode near the place where afterwards the city of Cheribon was built: the Javanese Mahomedans look upon him as the founder of their religion in the island; but it appears from Valentyn, that the kings of Damak and Padjang had been converted to Mahomedanism before the arrival of Cheik Ibn Molana, to whom the king of Damak gave his daughter in marriage, and with her, as a portion, the country of Cheribon: the city of that name was built about the same time, and Cheik Ibn

Molana became both a powerful sovereign and a venerated apostle of Islamism : both the kings of Bantam, and the princes of Cheribon, derive their origin from him ; and Mahomedans, from all parts of Java, perform pilgrimages to his tomb as to that of one of their greatest saints.

Their mosques, or places of prayer, are dispersed all over the country. They are mostly built of wood, and have neither exterior appearance, nor interior ornament, to recommend them to the curiosity of strangers. Near Cheribon, however, a very handsome mausoleum was erected to Cheik Ibn Molana, which, with the mosque belonging to it, is deserving of particular description. It may rank among the most curious and magnificent antiquities, not only of Java, but of the East. It is called *Astana*, or the palace of the *soesoehoemam goenong djati*, monarch of the mountain of djati-trees. It is a vast semicircular space, or amphitheatre, seemingly cut out of a rock, the mountain of the djati-trees, and divided into five different areas, or courts, each rising above the other and communicating by steps. The front is guarded by a row of palisadoes ; beyond these is a wall of about five feet high, faced with little white and painted Chinese tiles, in the middle of which seven steps lead up to the first court, the largest and broadest of the five being one hundred feet in front ; on

the wall are ranged nine superb, and inconceivably large, china vases, with flowers; and two large trees grow on the left of this area. Another wall, exactly similar to the first, divides this from the second court; at the foot of this wall stand, on the right hand, seven, and on the left six large and beautiful china vases, with flowers; the ascent to the second court, is by five steps; and upon the wall are placed, on each side, four similar large china vases, and eight trees are planted in this court, so disposed that each vase stands between two trees, except on the left side, where the irregularity is observable of two trees standing together: in this court are two handsome Javanese houses, intended for the reception of the princes, or great men, who may come upon a pilgrimage to this sacred place: four china vases, with flowers, are also placed in the upper part of this court, at the foot of the third wall. All these vases are the gifts of different Mahomedan princes, the kings of Bantam, Macasser, Palembang, and others, who have at various times visited the tomb. A neatly paved path leads quite across the second court to the entrance of the third, which is through a handsome gate, and up four steps; but this court, which is much smaller than the other two, and is guarded by a similar wall, has nothing in it. No Christians are allowed to go higher than this place, although

some of the upper officers of the Company are said to have penetrated as far as the fifth and last court. There is no wall before the fourth, but merely an ascent by five steps cut in the rock; in this is a magnificent Moorish temple, or mosque, with three roofs above each other, all decreasing in size upwards, and the area is planted with trees on each side of the mosque. The ascent from this to the last and smallest of the courts is, probably, likewise by steps, but they are hidden by the mosque and trees in the fourth: this farthest and most elevated area seems to be only eight or nine paces broad on each side, but it runs considerably back, in a semicircular shape; upon it appears only the tomb itself of the holy man: this, by reason of the great height and distance, cannot be accurately described; it seems to be a handsome and lofty structure, with a large arched gate; and some pretend to distinguish a profusion of gilding upon it. It is necessary to observe, that the whole is formed in a sloping direction, and that each court has a considerable acclivity before reaching the entrance of the next, which renders the site of the tomb itself very elevated: these entrances are all closed by small railed gates. The tomb, and the buildings appertaining to it, are kept in very indifferent repair, and are falling fast to decay.

They do not bury their dead in coffins, as the Europeans or their Chinese neighbours do, but simply wrap them in a piece of white linen, and deposit them in the grave, placing two stones upon it, one at the head, the other at the feet. They believe that these stones are to serve for seats to the two angels, who, after their death, examine into their conduct while in this world.

The laws of Java determine the right of inheritance as follows: when a man dies, leaving a widow, son or daughter, and brother, his substance is divided into eight equal shares; of these the child receives four, the widow one, and the brother three. If the deceased leave two, three, or four widows, then that share which is otherwise given to the one widow is divided, in equal portions, among all the widowed claimants. If the deceased have two, three, or more brothers, the same is done with respect to them, and the three eighths which would have fallen to the share of one, is divided equally among them all, provided they are all sons of the same father.

These laws, however, are sometimes departed from when circumstances afford inducements to favour one of the heirs more than the others.

Thus the high priests of the provinces of Paddy and Joana certified to the resident of Joana, that they had fixed the share of the widow of a man who had died there at one third part of the

whole inheritance, and had divided the remaining two thirds into eight portions, one of which they likewise adjudged to the widow, four to the daughter of the deceased, and three to his brother; giving as a reason for this departure from the usual mode, that the wife had, by her own diligence and industry, gained the greater part of the property thus left to be divided, and being therefore the occasion of the prosperity of the family, ought to be the greatest sharer in the division of the estate.

The Javanese are, in general, well shaped, of a light brown colour, with black eyes and hair; their eyes are more sunk in the head than is generally observed in the nations south of the line; they have flattish noses and large mouths, are mostly thin, yet muscular; a few corpulent men among them make no exception to this general description. The women, when young, have much softer features than the men; but when they grow old, imagination cannot well conceive more hideous hags.

The dress of the men consists of a pair of linen breeches, which scarcely reach half way down their thighs, and over this a sort of shirt of blue or black coarse cotton cloth, which hangs loose about them below the knees. The hair of the head is bound up in a handkerchief, in the form of a turban.

The dress of the woman consists of a coarse chintz cloth wrapped twice round the body, and fastened under the breasts, hanging down to the calf of the leg, or lower; over this they wear a short jacket, which reaches to the waist: they have no covering to the head, but wear their hair bound in a fillet, and fastened at the back of the head with large pins: they sometimes adorn their hair with chaplets of flowers.

Children, boys and girls, often run about entirely naked till they are eight or nine years of age.

What is mentioned with respect to dress, relates only to the lower classes; the higher orders and rich people wear much more costly garments.

CHAPTER V.

Batavia. — Its Situation. — Harbour. — Canals. — Walls. — Castle. — Houses, &c. — Inhabitants. — Revenues and Charges, &c. — Character of the Inhabitants. — Mode of Living. — Marriages. — Slaves. — Gaming.

BATAVIA lies, according to the best observations, in the south latitude of $6^{\circ} 5'$, on the northern shore of the empire of Jaccatra, in the deepest part of a bay formed by the points of Ontong Java and Crawang; from which points, it lies, namely, from the former, about four Dutch miles south-east, and from the latter about five miles south-west. Ten or twelve small islands, at the distance of from two to four leagues from the city, shelter the bay from N. W. to N. by E. from the swell of the sea; the road is between a quarter and half a league from the city. The ground upon which the city is built, bears evident marks of having been left, or thrown up, by the sea; as is the case with a great extent of the land on each side, the shore of which is almost always soft mud, for a good way up, and which increases every year. Above, or to the south of the city, towards Tanabang and Weltevreden, the ground rises by degrees, and the soil be-

comes firmer and drier as you approach the mountains, which lie twelve or more Dutch miles inland.

Batavia receives the greater part of its water by the drain which has been made from the Sedani, or river of Tangerang; but neither is this, nor the water of the other rivers, which, communicating with the Mookervart, is brought to the city, added to the great river of Jaccatra, which runs through the middle of it, all together nearly adequate to give a proper degree of circulation to the inner and outer canals of the city, whereby most of them have only one or two feet water in the good monsoon, or dry season; and in the cross-canals there is no perceptible current whatsoever.

The form of the city is an oblong square, longitudinally intersected by the great river. Its circumference, including the castle, is about twelve hundred roods, or one Dutch mile; the longest sides, which lie in the direction of s. by e. and n. by w. are about three hundred, and the shortest two hundred roods in length. Besides the city-moats, which run entirely round, each division, on either side of the river, has two canals running parallel with the longest sides, and intersected at right angles by several cross-canals.

The city is surrounded by a wall of coral-

rock, serving as a facing to the rampart behind it, which occupies but a very narrow space of ground in many places. It is defended by twenty or one-and-twenty bastions, if the greater part of them may be so called, as they are mostly of a square or semicircular shape, projecting beyond the curtains, which, with the wall itself, are built nearly perpendicular, and are in so ruinous a condition as to threaten to fall down every day; for which reason no other cannon are placed upon them but such as are very light, and intended only to fire general salutes.

The castle, which formerly lay by the sea-side, but which is now, by the continual increase of the mud-banks before it, full one hundred roods from the sea, stands on the east bank of the river which divides the town; it covers about two hundred roods of ground, and is a regular square fortress, with four bastions of rock-stone. For these regions it might be considered as a tolerably strong fortification, were it not full of buildings withinside, which must obstruct, if not render impracticable, its defence. Besides this, Governor-general Van Imhoff rendered it entirely useless as a citadel, by breaking down the curtain which formerly connected the two bastions looking towards the city, in order to make a roomy esplanade before the government-house, and the other buildings in the castle: indefen-

sible, therefore, on that side, whoever is in possession of the eastern part of the city is equally master of the castle.

Besides the public buildings, the following number of houses, of all descriptions, large and small, are found here according to Valentyn :

In the city 678 large } Dutch houses.
564 small }

997 Chinese ditto.

203 Dutch ditto, tenanted by Chinese.—In all . . . 2442

And out of the city,

	Arrack houses.	Large Dutch do.	Small ditto.	Chinese ditto.	Total
At the New-gate	6	62	181	309	558
At the Diest-gate,	1	7	33	236	277
At the Rotterdam-gate,	5	120	501	106	732
At the Utrecht-gate,	0	27	135	589	751
Coach-houses,	—	—	—	—	9
	<hr/> 12	<hr/> 216	<hr/> 850	<hr/> 1240	<hr/> 2328

In all, without the city, 2328

Total 4770

This account appeared to the gentlemen who were there in 1769, in the *Endeavour*, to be greatly exaggerated, especially with respect to the number of houses within the walls. Huyscr states the number of houses in Batavia to be 3500, but does not add whether he includes the suburbs. In 1778 there were in the neighbourhood of Batavia sixty brick-kilns, thirty-four tile-kilns, eighteen lime-kilns, seven manufactories of earthen-ware, twenty arrack-distilleries, and about seventy sugar-mills.

The number of the inhabitants were, in the year 1778, from the statements of Huysers, 468 European burghers, 5582 native Christians, 4873 mardykers, or manumitted slaves of all nations, 23,309 Chinese, 289 Amboynese, 278 Bandanese, 966 Moors, 254 Gentoos, 1852 Malays, 324 Boutonniers, 1983 Macassers, 3707 Bouiginese, 104 Timorese, 189 Mandharese, 85 Sumbauwers, 13,073 Baliars, 33,408 Javans, and 20,072 slaves; making in all, 110,816, exclusive of women and children, and of the Company's servants. The Company's establishment of Batavia consisted in 1776-1777 of 613 persons in civil, and 35 in ecclesiastical employments, 95 surgeons and assistants, 125 belonging to the artillery, 875 seamen and marines, 1571 soldiers, and 903 mechanics; in all, 4221 Europeans, besides 703 natives in their service.

Among the Europeans are also comprehended the posterity of Europeans born here; of these the most considerable number are females; indeed there are not many women at Batavia who were born in Europe, but the white women, who are by no means scarce, are descendants from European parents, of the third or fourth generation, the gleanings of many families who have successively become extinct, in the male line; for it is certain, that, from whatever cause, this climate is not so fatal to the ladies as to the other sex.

The female Europeans at Batavia seldom expose themselves to the heat of the sun, make frequent use of the cold bath, and live more temperately than the men, which may be the reasons of their suffering less from the insalubrity of the climate.

The important revenues arising from the import and export duties, &c. and the valuable productions which the country around it affords, might induce the supposition, that Batavia, or rather the colony of Jaccatra, for that is the account in the books of the Company, to which all relative to Batavia is carried, were adequate to its own support; yet this is far from being the case. Batavia is the metropolis of the Dutch Indian possessions; it is the seat of their government; a large garrison is constantly maintained in it; most of the Company's ships touch here, both outward and homeward bound; their cargoes are landed and shipped; all recruits are received, maintained, and paid here; in short, almost all the charges of the marine and military establishment of the Company are carried to the account of Batavia; and it cannot, therefore, be but that a considerable balance must appear every year against it. The famous Mossel, it is true, in his Memorial of Economy, maintains, that Batavia might be rendered a source of great revenue to the Company, even after defraying

all these charges. Taking as a basis the books of the year 1752, he calculated the profits and revenues of Batavia at *f.* 3,300,000, and the charges to *f.* 2,800,000 per annum, leaving a yearly surplus of *f.* 500,000, about 45,454*l.* sterling. But the books have not been closed so favourably since his time: in 1767, indeed, a favourable balance appeared of *f.* 233,330, about 21,212*l.*; but in the peaceful year 1779, the collective receipts amounted to *f.* 1,820,327, and the charges to *f.* 2,384,930, or *f.* 564,603, about 51,327*l.* more than the receipts, which is vastly different from the calculations of Mossel.

The various opinions and habits which have been imbibed, by the different modes of education, and manners of life, of so many individuals, from so many different countries, are here all obliterated, or blended into the single passion of amassing riches, which seems to be "their being's end and aim;" and to attain this object, they leave untried no means within their power. With whatever ideas of virtue or honesty they may step on shore, they can scarcely be said to have passed the threshold of their first abode, before those unsuitable notions are dismissed from their minds *: there are very few who resist

* Ovington, a traveller of the last century, relates as a common proverbial saying in his time, that "those who sail from Europe to India, leave their consciences on this side of the
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the temptations which assail them, and who do not deviate from the paths of integrity. Yet there are very few who, although they have sacrificed every consideration, for the sake of the object of their unwearied pursuit, attain the wished-for goal, and acquire sufficient wealth, to satisfy their desire of riches; disappointed, therefore, in their expectations, discontented with their situation, and dissatisfied with themselves, they fall into a state of melancholy and dejection, which, added to the influence of a noxious climate upon their health, and the want of their customary viands, exhausts their animal spirits, and renders them a prey to that death which alone extinguishes their boundless lust of wealth.

Most of the people who live here, and even many of the rich, who, it might be supposed, had attained the summit of their wishes, have something in their countenances expressive of discontent and dejection, and which seems a certain sign, that all is not right within. The climate may, undoubtedly, contribute much to this appearance; the animal spirits do not flow in that free circulation, nor do the powers of the mind possess that strength and elasticity, which

Cape; and in returning thence to Europe, they leave their consciences on the other side of the Cape." So that, except in doubling the Cape, an East Indian was not supposed to have any conscience at all.

animate the human frame, and give energy to the exertions of the soul, in more temperate climes. This is not all; for, after a short residence in this debilitating atmosphere, a state of languor, and love of inactivity, soon overcome all the active powers of the mind, and, occasioning a total neglect of exercise, ruin the constitution, and induce an absolute repugnance to every kind of occupation. The only resource for those who are in this state of listlessness, approaching to torpidity, is, to seek for relief in society, and to endeavour to kill the heavy hours in the most frivolous manner: smoking tobacco, uninteresting and useless conversation, drinking, and card-playing, form the sum of their amusements; and having, in this manner, spent the day and part of the night, they rise the next morning, utterly at a loss how to pass the many tedious hours of the day they enter upon; and devoid of all inclination for reading, either for amusement or instruction, they are compelled to go the same dull round, and are only solicitous to make choice of such ways of killing time, as least interfere with their beloved state of motionless repose.

That happy social intercourse, tempered by friendship and softened by love, which is the result of a rational nuptial connexion, is little known here. Most marriages are made with the

sordid views of obtaining riches, or securing preferment; and the few matrimonial engagements entered into on account of personal qualifications, afford instances of alienation in a very short time after the hymeneal knot has been tied: principally owing to the erroneous education which parents give to their children, but more especially to their daughters.

There is another circumstance, which does not a little contribute to render the domestic lives of the Batavians disagreeable, or unhappy; this is the service of slaves; which, as no European servants can be procured, nor are allowed to be kept, has become a necessary evil. Every year full three thousand of both sexes are brought to Batavia, as well from the coast of Malabar, Bengal, Sumatra, and other parts, as from Celebes; from which last place, however, the greatest number are imported. A duty of twelve rixdollars, about 47s. per head, is paid upon all slaves who enter Batavia for the first time, excepting upon those brought by the commanders of vessels, from the places whence the slaves come, on their own account; and which, with respect to the ships coming from Celebes or Macassar, is fixed to the number of twelve, who are permitted to be brought at one time, without paying any duty.

They are employed in every kind of domestic

and menial service, in which they are instructed by those who have been longer in the family, or have had opportunities of improvement; and they become, in time, good cooks, tailors, coachmen, &c. and do not yield, in their acquired qualifications, to the best European servants. They experience, in general, better usage, at the hands of their masters, than what the negro slaves in the West Indies meet with from the colonists; although instances sometimes occur here, of barbarity and inhumanity in their treatment: but these are not frequent, and those who are guilty of such conduct seldom fail to meet their due reward, and are generally murdered, or poisoned, by their exasperated slaves; or else the slaves run away from their masters, who thereby lose a valuable property, and are punished in their purses. When the slaves are well treated, they possess fidelity enough, and confidence may be reposed in them, provided they do not carry their passion for gaming, to which they are extremely addicted, to excess; for if they have once abandoned themselves to this infatuating vice, they not only play till they lose all they may have of their own, but likewise all they can lay their hands on belonging to their masters, continually flattering themselves with the idle hope of retrieving their former losses by a lucky throw of the dice; in which they are,

generally, miserably deceived ; for the Chinese, who are here accustomed to keep gaming-houses, and, among other games of hazard, have one denominated top-tables, are too great adepts in the art, and much too cunning for the poor slaves, to allow of their regaining what they may have lost.

It cannot easily be conceived why the supreme government does not put a stop to these baneful proceedings, by prohibiting, or destroying, those dangerous haunts of gamblers and sharpers, which are the causes of the seduction and ruin of the larger part of the slaves in the city ; for it is the officers of justice of the municipal government which fare the best by them, receiving from the keepers of the gaming-houses a monthly consideration for their protection and connivance* ; whence it happens, that these officers will never receive, nor attend to, any complaints which may be made of the seduction of the slaves, on the part of their owners : even the confession of the slave himself, who has lost all his own, and his master's property which he could get at, and the testimony of the master, who has found his slave at the gaming-table, are

* The officers who control the Chinese gaming-houses, are required to pay to the Company, as a consideration for the profits they make by them, a monthly contribution of 3100 rixdollars, or upwards of 8000*l.* sterling per annum.

insufficient to procure the conviction or punishment of the Chinese, if the latter merely persists in swearing that he never saw the slave in his house: "I can do nothing in the business; the Chinese, you hear, denies it;" is the only answer, and the only satisfaction, which can, in such cases, be obtained from the executer of the law.

What, however, is the most disagreeable circumstance attending a residence at Batavia, is the insalubrity of the climate, and the great degree of mortality which prevails there, especially among transient visitors, or recent arrivals; this is apparent to such a degree, that the English, who circumnavigated the globe, 1768-1770, and had experienced almost every vicissitude of climate, declared that Batavia was not only the most unhealthy place they had seen, but that this circumstance was a sufficient defence or preservative against any hostile attempts, as the troops of no nation would be able to withstand, nor would any people in their senses, without absolute necessity, venture to encounter, this pestilential atmosphere.

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ON
THE ISLAND OF JAVA.

1804—6.

B O O K IV.

CHAPTER I.

*Batavia—Its Situation—Government—Commerce.
—General Observations on colonial Produce.—
Relations with Japan.*

BATAVIA, situate on the northern coast of the island of Java, in the ancient kingdom of Jacatra, in $6^{\circ} 10'$ s. latitude, and $122^{\circ} 47'$ E. longitude, is traversed by a great river, which falls into the sea a short three quarters of a mile from the town.

This is one of the largest and richest cities of Asia : all the streets are watered by canals, which are navigable for good-sized boats. It is the capital of the Dutch possessions in the East, and the seat of the head council, which consists of twelve members, including the governor-general, who presides. In 1804 it stood as follows :

M. Sibert, Governor-general, President.

M. Wise, Director-general of the Administration.

M. Engelhart, Director-general and Governor
of Java.

EDLERS—(Counsellors of the Indies.)

M. Eyseldyck,	M. Waldeck,
M. Bailly,	M. Cantervischer,
M. Holl,	M. Rose, Resident at
M. Rymdeck,	Tcheriboff,
M. Van-Hausen,	M. Sandolhe-Rei, Brigadier.

SECRETARIES.

M. Van-Brâm, M. Mooress.

At the beginning of December, in the same year, a neutral ship came in with dispatches from Europe, which made some changes in the government. The governor-general was superseded, which, on account of his age, he had repeatedly solicited, and was replaced by Mr. Wise, who was succeeded by Mr. Eyseldyck.

The council is commonly held on Tuesday and Friday, from seven o'clock in the morning till noon. On those days the governor's guard does the same military honours to each member of the council, when he passes, as to a general. As soon as two runners who precede the carriage are seen, the guard is drawn out, and the drum beats a salute.

The authority of this council is absolute: it makes and suspends laws, maintains troops, appoints kings, declares war, concludes treaties of

peace and alliance with all the Eastern princes, and places residents at their courts. It takes cognizance also of all matters, commercial, civil, and military. The whole authority of the council may be considered as united in the governor-general, who presides; for he may adopt, on his own responsibility, any propositions of council which are rejected contrary to his opinion.

A fiscal is at the head of the police and criminal affairs; he has great authority, and regulates fines and punishments arbitrarily.

A shabandar, agent-general for trade, acts as consul for all nations, is the medium of every operation of trade, and introduces foreigners, whether princes or private individuals, to the council.

A marine fiscal superintends whatever relates to the police of the roadstead, river, and navigable canals.

The commerce of Batavia is considerable; but it is, properly speaking, merely an exchange-trade, for the export of cash is expressly prohibited: no captain of a merchant-ship, no trader, who brings piastres, must take any of them away again; they must be expended. The Chinese, who form the customs, closely examine whatever is carried on board, and, if they find any gold or silver coin, it is not only confiscated, but the owners are also subject to fine and im-

prisonment. When a vessel arrives, the captain incloses his bill of lading to the shabendar, who selects the articles, the exclusive trade in which is reserved to the Company; such as opium, camphor, benzoin, calin, a sort of Indian metal, pewter, iron, saltpetre, gunpowder, guns, &c. and fixes on what is to be given in exchange, and at what price. This arrangement takes place at the house of the director-general: the captain then makes a statement of what remains, and petitions the council, always through the medium of the shabendar, that he may be permitted to sell the remainder to the highest bidder. When he has obtained an answer, which is always favourable in such cases, he affixes his statement to the privileged hotel of the city, and the merchants are then at liberty to treat with him.

It seldom happens that these captains obtain the whole of what they were to have in return, the Company almost always insisting that they shall take a quarter or a third in spices, by which means they secure a consumption equal to their stock on hand.

As this city is the general depôt for all the spices of the Moluccas, and the productions of the island of Java, consisting of rice, coffee, sugar, arrack, and pepper, ships are continually coming from every part of India, America, the African and even European islands; and, not

withstanding the war, and the unhealthiness of Batavia, the road is always full of the flags of all nations, attracted by the profit they are sure to make by it.

Bengal sends drugs, patnas, blue cloths, different kinds of stuffs, and opium, which are exchanged for rice, sugar, coffee, tea, spices, arrack, a small quantity of silks, and china-ware.

The kings of Achem and Natal, in the island of Sumatra, send camphor, the best which is known, benzoin, birds'-nests, calin, and elephants' teeth; and in return have rice, opium, patnas, and frocks, which are made at Java, Macassar, and the Moluccas.

The princes of the isle of Borneo send gold-dust, diamonds, and birds'-nests; and take rice, opium, patnas, frocks, gunpowder, and sometimes small guns, as they say, to defend them against pirates, but rather for their own use as pirates.

The Americans bring kerseymeres, cloths, hats, gold wire, silver, galloon, stationery, wine, beer, Seltzer water, provisions, and piastres, in exchange for spices, sugar, arrack, tea, coffee, rice, rushes, and Chinese silk and porcelain.

The Mascate ships bring piastres and gum-Arabic, in exchange for sugar, tea, pepper, rice, and china.

Those from the Isle of France bring wine,

olive-oil, vinegar, hams, cheese, soap, cambric, trinkets, mercury, and ebony; and receive back, white sugar-candy, coffee, pepper, arrack, tea, a large quantity of China and Bantam ware, satins, and pekins, calin, and rotang.

From the Cape of Good Hope are received kitchen-garden seed, butter, and Madeira and Constantia wine, in exchange for rice, sugar, coffee, tea, and spices.

The Chinese bring an immense quantity of porcelain and silks of every kind, taking in return piastres, opium, ebony, sandal-wood, spices, and birds'-nests, which they esteem great dainties.

These nests are nearly half the size of a woman's hand; they are made by a very small sea-swallow, and consist of a glutinous substance and froth of the sea interwoven with filaments. They are found on the coasts of all the Sunda islands, in the cavities of steep rocks. The Indian method of procuring them is by fixing a stake on the summit of the precipice, with a rope ladder affixed, whence they descend into the most perilous situations to look for them. These nests are a considerable branch of trade to China. Although they have neither taste nor smell, they have the property of renovating and giving a new tone to a debilitated and worn-out stomach, and restoring all its functions: they

are, in short, a most powerful stimulant. They are made into most excellent broth, and are an ingredient in all the ragouts of the princes and governors of India. Their high price prevents the mere colonists from partaking of them, for they fetch from five to six louis a pound: the white nests are most in request. They are prepared by first washing them in three or four changes of lukewarm water; when they have been some time in it they puff up like large vermicelli.

* These nests, so highly thought of, particularly in China, are the production of a kind of swallow, the *salangana*, *hirundo esculenta*, of a blackish grey colour, a little inclining to green; with a shade of mouse-grey on the back and under the belly; the middle toe, including the claw, is longer than the foot; the nail of this toe is very long, sharp, and crooked; the bird uses it in fastening itself to the rocks; the tail is longer than the body, neck, and head together; it is also rather forked. This swallow nearly resembles, in shape, the bank-swallow, but it is so light and delicate, that ten of this species weigh only about two ounces and a half.

The *salangana* prepares its nest with its dung, and is two months in completing it. In form it is a half oval elongated, and intersected at right angles by the centre of its little axis. In two of the nests which I inspected, feathers were introduced into their semi-transparent substance. The nearer white the nests are, the more they are valued. The Chinese hold them in the highest estimation, and serve them up, prepared in various ways, at opulent tables, not only as a delicious dish, but as a restorative and most powerful stimulant. The European palate discovers nothing more in this singular dish than an insipid jelly, nearly resembling vermicelli.—*Sourani*.

The Dutch being the only Europeans who keep up a communication with Japan, the governor-general of the Indies sends a ship of 1200 to 1500 tons from Batavia every year, in the month of July, laden with kerseymeres, fine cloths, clock-work, and spices: these are almost wholly exchanged for bars of copper, which is made into a very clumsy kind of coin for paying the Indian and European troops, as well as the people employed in the counting-houses of Java and the Moluccas. These ingots are of the finest red copper, and as thick as a finger; they are cut into two, four, six, and eight sous pieces of Holland; the value is inscribed on them: this coin is termed, in the Malay language, *baton*, which signifies stone. The Company also takes camphor from Japan, but it is far inferior in quality to that of Sumatra.

These voyages are very advantageous to the captains of the ships sent out. As they are allowed several tons, independently of the cabin and deck, they bring, on their own account, different sorts of furniture, fans, various articles of copper, and sabres, the temper of the blades of which equals the best workmanship of Turkey. These sabres are contraband, and are sold at Batavia from four to eight louis apiece.

The cargo always contains a present for the emperor of that vast territory, and he, in return,

sends one to the governor-general of the Dutch possessions in India. It consists mostly of desks, drawers, and close-stools, of valuable inland wood, covered with a varnish peculiar to the country, and incrustated with flowers, or other designs, in mother-of-pearl or different colours.

The mode of dealing at Japan is wholly private, since the missionary Jesuits were driven out of it for wishing to sow dissensions, by propagating their doctrine. The India Company has a permanent commissioner in a small island, Naugazacki, a short distance from the main land. When the Batavian ship is a little way off, the emperor's agent hails it, to demand whether the captain is a Christian; he answers that he is Dutch, when a signal is made for him to approach: from that moment he is surrounded by innumerable armed boats. He is first boarded, to see that he has neither women nor books; for the law is very severe against the introduction of either into the island. A Dutchman, who was to announce that he had either, would be immediately sent back, without being allowed any anchorage; and such an occurrence would be sufficient to break off all commercial intercourse. This visit concluded, the merchandise is all put ashore, the ship is disarmed and unrigged, without the aid of the captain or crew, and the whole is carried on shore; the captain transmits

the bill of lading to the emperor's agent, with a note of what he desires in exchange, and waits quietly for the merchandise he is to have in return. A sufficiency of provisions and women for him and his crew are sent to the island without delay, their laws permitting an intercourse with the females of the country. During this interval the captain transacts his own business and his private exchange. When the whole is finished, the return merchandise ready on the beach; and the emperor having notified what he chooses for the ensuing year, the Japanese again load the vessel themselves, replace its rigging, and restore all the arms, papers, and effects which they secured on its arrival. There is no instance of any thing being lost: in fact, honesty is carried to so great a pitch in this country, that the merchants mostly leave their shops and store-houses without either guards or clerks. If a Japanese wants any thing, he goes into the shop where it is sold, and if he finds no one at home, he takes it, lays down the value which is marked upon it, and goes out.

All the streets of the towns are closed at night by iron gates; each Japanese is responsible for his neighbour, so that they are all interested in no harm happening to each other: besides, when a theft or other crime is committed in any quarter, and the author cannot be

discovered, the crier, who is a kind of police-agent, the commissary of police intrusted with the watch, the judge of the division, and the neighbours, would be forced to make good the loss, and be subject to severe corporal punishment: the family of the two latter would be put to death.

This people is very strict in the observance of its laws, customs, and civil and domestic manners. The Dutch, in their embassies, have been, and still are, necessitated to submit to humiliating conditions to keep up their communication with Japan. The ambassadors and their suite have no knowledge of the interior of the country, being conveyed to the capital in palanquins well inclosed with fixed lattice-work, and nothing could induce the bearers to indulge them with a view of the country they pass through to make any local observation, so that what is known of the interior is very little and uncertain. The seas which lave the shores of Japan, are very dangerous, and not much known; nor is there any good chart; therefore the officers, sent with the merchant-ship from Batavia, are almost always selected for their great experience.

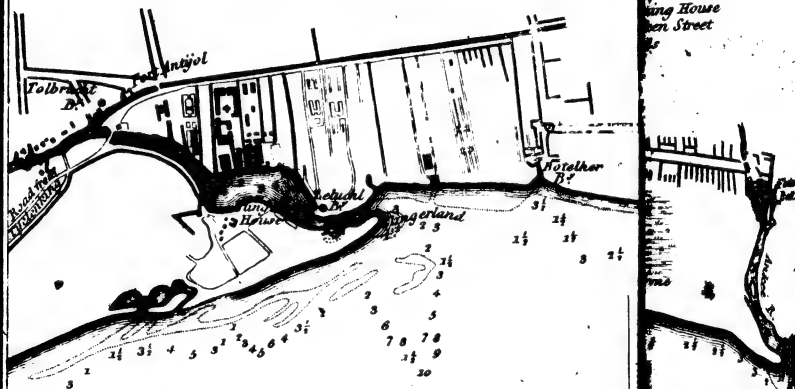
CHAPTER II.

Defence of Batavia.—Banks.—Troops.—Population.—Walks.—Unhealthiness.—Productions.

THE line of defence of Batavia, which is the depôt for the whole wealth of Holland in India, extends from the mouth of the river Antijol to that of the river Anka.

Besides the walls of the city, composed of well-built bastions, inclosed by a wet ditch, very deep and wide, there is also a good citadel with four bastions, also of stone. This citadel commands the city, and defends the entrance of the river Jacatra, called the Great River, which, running through Batavia, fills its dikes and those of the citadel. On the extremity of the left bank, at the mouth of this river, is a fort, named Water-castel, which is washed by the sea. Its platform is of stone, and the parapets are well covered with turf; it mounts thirty sixteen and twenty-four pounders, and contains barracks, built of bamboo, for about one hundred men, some officers' rooms, and a well, all in good repair. The fort is flanked by capital batteries, raised on the right and left bank, in front of the citadel and fortifications.

The left wing is defended by four works, viz. a

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*The Soundings are in Feet
The Town and Citadel is from the Map done
by Reymer Engineer to the Dutch E.I.C. in 1785
The circles along the Coast show the situation
of the new Works.*

redoubt, called the Flute, somewhat above the mouth of the Ancka, which it commands, as boats might come up there, and a very fine causeway which communicates with it, extending to the city walls.

Along the coast are the Beschekerme and Middel batteries : the latter is between that and the Water-castel. A redoubt, named the Siberg, is just erected, to flank the Beschekerme and defend the grand causeway of the Aneka. The right wing is also defended by four works, three of which are on the coast : the Castor, near the mouth of Emerald river, which contains three, four, and five feet water ; the Bottelier, whose flanks have been recently rounded, also situated near a small river, but where a landing of any moment would be found very difficult ; the Zelucht, at the mouth, and on the left bank of the river Antijol, which has lately been constructed in lieu of an isolated battery which was on Stingerland Point ; and lastly, the Tolbruck, a strong battery placed near and above the great wooden bridge over the Antijol, to defend the passage and communication with the great causeway from Tijlenking by Tanijong-Priock. The Tolbruck was also to replace a work traversed by the causeway from Tijlenking to Batavia, which was covered on one side by the river An-

tijol, near a Chinese temple, and, on the other, by marshes which line the coast.

The little fort of Antijol is very old, built of brick; its parapets are scarcely four inches thick, and it could, at the utmost, merely serve as a defence against the natives. It may be said to be relinquished. In a second line on the great causeway from Batavia to Tolbruck, is a good battery which communicates with, and flanks it. All these works are of earth lined with turf, and contain barracks made of bamboo for about one hundred men.

An European artillery officer is always resident at the Tolbruck, Bottelier, and Water-castle; in the others Sepoy serjeants, who command detachments of fifteen to twenty Chinese and Malays, who mount guard armed with sabres and spears.

The whole left wing is so unwholesome, owing to the marshes of which it consists, and whence arise pestilential exhalations, that those who are on this station often fall victims to it within four or five hours after they arrive at their posts; they must, in part, be daily recruited, and those who can bear it drag on a languishing existence, although born in the country.

The two sides of the causeway, which extends from the Flute redoubt to the city dikes, were formerly enriched with pretty country-houses

and pleasure-gardens, of which some vestiges are still visible; but they have been all deserted, from the unhealthiness of the air.

All the plain which forms this defence is composed of muddy and impracticable morasses, which extend beyond the city, and are intersected by canals. In times of extreme drought, the top of the great mud-bank, which is at the mouth of the Jacatra, is perceptible at low water: vessels are obliged to weather its east side to get in. When they have proceeded up the river to the mole called the Jacpatte, they find horses which drag them up to the custom-house, where they unload.

At the mouth of the Ancka, by the natives called Caïmans river, because it abounds in those reptiles, the bottom is mud and sand, as is the bank, which has accumulated at the mouth within four or five years; but at Stingerland Point the bottom begins, on the coast, to be a mixture of sand and coral, with occasionally small shells, almost to Tijelenking.

The coast from Stingerland Point, to the great village of Tijelenking, is less unhealthy: we therefore see pretty country-houses, tolerably sized villages, and hamlets.

An enemy making an attack upon Batavia, could, at the worst, only run the ships on shore; and

might then perhaps, by means of its small craft, exposing itself to the fire of the batteries, burn a few, as the British squadron did when it blockaded the road; but supposing him to obtain possession of Batavia, in spite of its defences, natural and artificial, he would still be very far from master of the Dutch possessions in the island of Java, and it would, moreover, be impossible for him to maintain himself there; for the environs of the town cannot nearly produce the provisions necessary for the immense population, native and Chinese, which it contains; he would further have to guard against the king of Bantam, a neighbouring prince and faithful ally of the Hollanders, whose country is very populous; and the council of India retiring to Samarang, on the northern coast, the governor-general would derive great resources from the emperor of Mataram, and the sultan of Joucki, who would readily furnish 25 or 30,000 brave and well-armed men, independently of Europeans, and Madurans and Sammanapps, regimented and commanded by their native princes.

Samarang receives the produce of all the northern, and eastern coast, and of the interior principalities; and from this depôt, the magazines of Batavia are supplied.

The European and Indian troops entrusted

with the defence of Batavia and its out posts, consist of

	Men.
French auxiliary troops of the 12th battalion, about	240
23d Dutch battalion	600
National troops three battalions	2400
Of the above, 200, including officers, subalterns, and grenadiers, are Europeans; the remainder Madurans and Sammanapps.	
1 Battalion infantry chasseurs, Madurans and Sammanapps	400
Foot artillery (mostly recruits), Madurans	600
1 Company of light artillery, Madurans	100
European cavalry	200
	<hr/>
	4540
	<hr/>

There is also a corps of military engineers, mostly Europeans. Among them are two French officers, Col. Barbier, director of fortifications, and a captain: the others are German and Dutch.

The commandant of these troops is a Swiss; he has the rank of brigadier, and is a counsellor of the Indies. The second in command, M. Vaugine, a Frenchman, regimental colonel of the national troops, is invested with the details of the service and administration. The artillery is under the command of a Frenchman, who has resided here forty years: his name is D'Ormancey d'Hormois: he comes from Dijon.

All these troops are quartered in the environs, on account of the unhealthiness of the city and coast; the third battalion only remains in the city,

to take the duty of the castle and gates, with some Indian artillery in the batteries on the coast. It must be admitted, notwithstanding the courage and a kind of ferocity natural to the Malays, that, even if they were backed, supported, and commanded by Europeans, directed also by princes of their own, it would be difficult to make them stand a sharp action. There is reason to apprehend they would give way, and that nothing could rally them afterwards. The recruits, which daily come in, desert forty to sixty at a time. Their princes, who reside at Batavia, and for whom they have great veneration and love, must be the pretext for subjecting and rallying them; but they must also be promptly embodied before they can get on board the canoes, which are always upon the coast, and by which means they easily make the island of Madura, their own country; or they take refuge in the kingdom of Bantam, which is the common resort of deserters and robbers, both Malay and Chinese. This kingdom, wherein all malcontents readily meet assistance, although the king is allied and almost tributary to the Dutch Company, has its frontier at Tangarang, two leagues from Batavia.

To this inconvenience must be added that of the misunderstanding which continually prevails among a great part of the superior officers,

owing to a want of confidence in the brigadier, who, from his particular character and principles, has never succeeded in obtaining it from any of them. Besides, no real military spirit and union can exist in a mercantile government, where the lowest clerk has a high rank, and in which every new-comer may be indiscriminately received as an officer, may soon attain the most elevated rank, and whose sole object is to make a fortune by every means which this colony, so abundant in resources, presents. It is, however, indebted to these strangers for its numerous European population, without which it would be reduced to the few colonists who are fixed there. It will be easily perceived, that, without the natural defence of this island, the mildness of its government and its adroit policy in keeping up a constant division of the most powerful princes, who govern under the title of allies, tributaries and protégées of the Company, and who are really under its dominion; but for these concurrent circumstances, the Dutch, unless they had a far greater European force, would have considerable difficulty in preserving their establishments in the island of Java. We may add, that the Company has a great ascendancy over the princes of the other Sunda islands, so that all the petty kings round about, although they have no commercial relations with Batavia, do not feel their

power secure, until they have obtained the approbation of the governor-general, which they send ambassadors to solicit.

The population of Batavia, including the suburbs, is estimated at about 160,000 inhabitants.

The Chinese alone are 100,000, and in a great measure occupy the principal suburbs: the others live in the city. The natives, Armenians, Persians, Arabs, and Europeans, make up the population. The latter are scarcely 12,000, in the service of the Company and private merchants. Few of them sleep in the town where are their store-houses, to which they go at six o'clock in the morning, transact business till ten or eleven, and then return to the country, on account of the unwholesomeness of the city, and the extreme heat, which compels the most inconsiderable private person to keep a carriage: the heat is too great, and it would be attended with too much danger, to go on foot. If some Europeans do occasionally remain in the town, it is only from a desire of gain, which induces them to risk death or a state of languor, that they may have a better chance of doing business with the captains or supercargoes of the vessels which daily arrive.

Noon is the general dinner-hour, and one o'clock that of the siesta. The climate renders

this life indispensable ; and, until five or six in the evening, no one is to be seen on business, which is almost wholly transacted in the morning.

After siesta the Dutch get into their carriages, and take a ride round the ancient kingdom of Jacatra, crossing the grand Chinese cemetery, which is nearly in the centre. In this burial-place are immense quantities of tombs, with inscriptions, specifying the time of the death, age, name, good qualities, and virtues of those within. These tombs are environed by cypress and many other small trees, and ornamented with more or less elegance, according to the means of the surviving relatives. They consist of a cut stone three feet long by the same width ; at the head is another stone of an elliptical form, set perpendicularly to a mass of earth, which slopes down behind ; on this stone is the inscription ; at the two sides are long benches of turf or stone, as seats for the relations to repose on, under the shade of the cypress, when they come to perform their funereal duties.

This ride is one of the finest imaginable ; all the ways which communicate with it are adorned with magnificent palaces, occupied by the counsellors of the Indies, the principal persons in the Company's service, and the richest merchants. In front of these palaces, parallel to the causeway, is a navigable canal, crossed by bridges

very ingeniously constructed of bamboo, connecting the opposite bank, which is covered with Indian villages, many of the huts of which are scarcely visible through the cocoa, bananas, papaya, and other bushy shrubs which conceal them, and with which every hut is surrounded.

Going straight from the city to Jacatra, before we come to the Chinese burial-place, and near one of the lodges of Freemasons, is the ancient fortress, whither the unhappy prince of this kingdom withdrew when the Dutch had conquered it for the purpose of establishing themselves there, and in which he died gloriously in the last engagement.

The cause of the insalubrity of Batavia may, in a great measure, be attributed to the large bank of mud which has accumulated opposite the mouth and across the river of Jacatra; to the canals of stagnant water which are in the different quarters, into which all the filth and carcases are thrown, retaining and spreading infectious effluvia in so hot a climate; and lastly, to the nature of the soil, composed of wet marshes full of miasmata, which incessantly exhale and produce the putrid diseases so fatal to Europeans, and even to the Chinese and natives.

The most hale and robust man, without having been guilty of any excess, is momentarily subject to be attacked by a disease and carried

off in a few hours, owing to the rapid progress which putridity makes in the viscera. A person should expose himself as little as possible to the night-air, eat and drink very moderately, and take much exercise on horseback—these are the most certain means of preserving health.

The camp of Welte-Preden and Jacatra, which are a league and a league and a half from the city, and where the Europeans in general reside, as the most healthy spots, are not exempt from disease. The body is in a continual perspiration; the pores always open, and, if at that time we experience a little cool air, which is common in the morning and evening, from the land and sea breezes, the pores are instantly closed, and a slight attack of the ague shortly follows. You no sooner go to bed than it increases, and if its progress is not quickly checked, the senses are gone in five or six hours afterwards. Before twelve hours have elapsed, putridity has already commenced its ravages, and death ensues before the friends with whom the previous evening was probably spent, know of the illness; consequently there is no country in which the news of a death creates so little surprise, whatever may be the interest taken in the life of the victim.

When an European marries, the attorney who draws up the contract, at the same time makes

the will of the couple. The unmarried who have natural or adopted children, which is very common in this colony, or who wish to benefit their friends, make theirs in like manner*. This precaution is necessary on account of a law, whereby government is authorized to take possession of all succession-property, the heirs† to which are not ascertained either by will or marriage-contract‡. It is evident that the object of government, in making this law, was to prevent the disadvantageous consequences to which families would be liable from the sudden mortalities of the climate.

The only method of rendering Batavia more healthy, would be to remove the banks which are at the mouths of the rivers of Antijol, Jacatra, and Ancka, and to make such a declivity in all the canals, that the water cannot stagnate, but have an uninterrupted and sufficiently rapid current to carry off the filth which they are always filled with; to build good sluices to clear them somewhat above their mouths, particularly at Jacatra, so that a considerable body of water falling, with great force, might carry off

* The expense of a will is fixed at ten rixdollars, which is equal to five piastres, whatever may be its contents, and without any reference to the value of the legacy.

† Independently of those portions pointed out by law, a will is requisite to give the heirs a right to the residuary part of a succession.

whatever had subsided at the entrance of the river, and prevent the reaccumulation of the mud forming another bank. The bank of Jacatra is always infested by a prodigious quantity of sharks and monstrous caimans, a kind of alligator, on the watch to devour the carcasses which float down the river.

The marshes also should be drained and brought into cultivation. This work has indeed already been commenced. On the plain of Batavia is delineated, on the left bank of the river of Jacatra, between the town and the coast, a large flat which they have been at work upon, but it is a slovenly performance; part only has been drained, and it is always marshy, wet, and impenetrable. The policy of the Dutch may possibly too have some effect in the continuance of this unwholesomeness. In the first place, these marshes are a natural defence, and the British squadron, when it blockaded Batavia in 1804, only relinquished it from the mortality which prevailed in the squadron, neither officers nor men being free from it. They in fact lost so many men in this road, that when they wanted to weigh anchor they were necessitated to call in the remnant of the crews of two or three frigates to accomplish it. When one frigate was got under way, the same was done for the others. Another motive seems also to afford

a justification of their neglect to render the country healthy: the insalubrity tends to keep away many foreign fortune-hunters who would swarm the colony too much. The governors and European merchants there, are used to the climate, and their constant residence in the country protects them against the bad effects of the unwholesomeness of the city air, fatal only to those who reside in it, or to strangers who settle there for commercial purposes.

The environs of Batavia produce only a little corn, maize, and rice. The fruit-trees are the cocoa, areca, different species of the banana, the papaya, white and red shaddock, mangostan, ramboutang, an enormous quantity of ananas, much betel, a creeping plant, whose aromatic leaf is chewed by all the Indians. They spread over this green leaf a little slaked lime, and at one end, a small piece of areca-nut and cardamom; they then roll it together and masticate it continually. They retain this composition in their mouths for hours together, which blackens their teeth and reddens their lips and gums; but the Chinese and Malays consider teeth, black as jet, very beautiful. Many of the Malays affix a little curled tobacco, which always hangs out of the mouth, to one end of the roll of betel.

At Batavia is collected saffron, and every kind of allspice, which is much used in whatever they

eat, particularly in rice, which is the principal food, as being a tonic, necessary in a hot climate, where the stomach is so easily disordered.

Food is cheap in this country; poultry, particularly Manilla ducks, are very plentiful: ten large fowls are sold for five francs, and other articles in proportion. Wine alone is dear; in one part of 1805 it fetched ten francs a bottle; but from neutral and French ships coming in from the Isle of France, it was reduced to two shillings, which is generally its lowest price.

CHAPTER III.

The Chinese.—Ceremonies at their Feast of the Dead. — Peculiarities. — Industry. — Domestic Virtues.

ON the 5th of April, according to annual custom, from sunrise, an endless multitude of Chinese, of both sexes and all ages, some on foot, others on horseback or in carriages, repaired to Jacatra, near the site of the capital of that ancient kingdom, where are all the tombs of their countrymen. These tombs were previously ornamented with bands of paper, or silk, of different colours, and three red wax tapers were burning on each. Every Chinese brought, or sent his slaves with, various provisions, which were placed as offerings on the tombs. The opulent were easily distinguished from the rest by the luxuriousness of their meats; there were dishes spread with all which the most splendid Oriental table could suggest, of viands, fish, fruit, sweetmeats, and drink. After having left these various provisions for some hours on the tombs, they ate part, offered some to the spectators, and carried the rest away. Several, however,

left behind them roasted poultry, which they had kept whole on purpose.

Women wept over the graves of their husbands; children deplored the loss of the authors of their days; and the old sighed for their faithful companions, appearing to regret having survived them.

Moveable theatres are constructed at the side, and temples on the plain. These temples are large saloons, ornamented with grotesque and antique statues, especially those representing Josi in the midst of his family.

Josi, a disciple of Confucius, to whom he had been servant, and afterwards his most intimate and confidential friend, who became the greatest legislator of that ancient nation, was of the lowest and most degraded class of the people. After the death of Confucius, the emperor disgraced and banished him. He retired into the bosom of his family, and was reduced to his primitive station, where he said that he found the happiness which he had lost during the whole time he had directed the affairs of the empire. To him, and to his laws, the Chinese are indebted for the preservation of their manners, customs, and dress. It is in his retirement, surrounded by his relatives, that he is represented and adored in the temples; a proof that the Chinese felt the extent of their loss, in the change of administration,

and that they were sensible of the mildness and wisdom of the laws of Josi. Opposite to each of these Gothic idols were red wax tapers of different sizes burning, and small matches of incense, which diffused an agreeable perfume. Before, and in the midst of, these statues is a kind of altar, covered with the greatest dainties; in a room behind this altar is another altar backing the former, and surmounted by a statue of Josi and other figures. An old bonze, of venerable aspect, with a long white beard, stood up, reciting some prayers in a low voice; he was bowed, and continually balanced his body with great regularity; he had a piece of wood, like a ruler, in his hand, which he now and then let fall, and as often picked up again; at the end of half an hour he withdrew. Under the vestibule of one of the temples two victims, as burnt-offerings, were killed, and placed on a prop; they were skinned, and their entrails taken out and set in front of them. One was a hog, the other a goat with the horns left on. The selection of these animals for sacrifice originated with Josi, who justified the preference, inasmuch as these animals, eating and destroying whatever might serve as food for men, could not but be an acceptable offering.

The interior of the temple was filled with tables, where they ate sweetmeats and preserved

fruits, drank tea, and smoked. This seemed, however, to be only permitted to the bonzes and wealthy; for the multitude remained without, not daring to approach. Preparation was now made for the ceremonial. A kind of vestry-room contained the ornaments and dresses for worship; in this the bonzes dressed and made every thing ready: behind it was a kitchen, probably for preparing the offerings.

The dress of the bonzes consists of a tunic of violet silk, transparent as crape, thrown over their ordinary clothes; they then gird themselves with a girdle of twisted silk, ornamented with gilding, to which are attached the ornaments and instruments required for the ceremony; over this is a robe, whose long sleeves, embroidered in gold, turn up at the wrists. These robes are also violet, but of a kind of Pekin work, very strong and fine; they are close all round, and are put on over the head. On the breast and back are two plates of gold embroidery, very rich and beautifully wrought. These pieces of embroidery represent a bird almost like an eagle. They have ornaments on their arms, also embroidered, and which closely resemble the amice. In their hand is a large fan, the case of which is suspended from their girdle like a knife-sheath. Their head-dress is a white straw or rush hat, in the shape of a cone, at the point of which is a

little ball of gold or crystal, and behind a small tuft of red silk which covers half the hat. Their slippers are square at the toe, and embroidered with gold; their legs are naked.

Many bonzesses were in the vestry-room. They also had violet silk robes, but neither gilt nor embroidered. These robes were open before, and covered the whole body. Their hair, twisted and turned up behind, formed a round tuft, fastened with two pins, of which the heads were diamonds. These tufts were surrounded, in the Malay manner, with other very rich pins or aigrettes, forming the beams of a most brilliant sun. Their slippers were like those of the bonzes. They bore no part in the exterior ceremonies, as would be supposed from their dress, but remained in the vestry.

The time of the ceremonies having arrived, the bonzes, fifteen in number, left the vestry, to the sound of shrill noisy music, insipid to an European ear. They took their stations before the altar, where they made many genuflections and gestures; they then presented to the high-priest, the chief of the bonzes, who had no distinguishing mark, many meats which were on the altar; he made different signs, pronouncing some words in a whining tone of lamentation. After having made various libations with several liquors, which he mixed and spread over the

offerings, the other bonzes replaced them on the altar. One of them then took a card, containing some characters which he sung. The words seemed to have little analogy to the day and ceremony, judging from the loud laughs of part of the auditory. Every bonze held in his hand a box, or small case, filled with incense-matches, and which he lighted as often as they were extinguished. After a repetition of this ceremony, during which the music was never discontinued, they entered the side-room, to take refreshment. After drinking tea there, they went, in procession, to a second temple, where the same ceremony was gone through. Thence they repaired to the theatre, when they had reached the foot of which they halted: the chief bonze mounted it alone; made many gestures and violent exclamations, and the performers began the spectacle.

During all these ceremonies and scenes, the gates of the temples and both sides of the theatre were filled with Chinese, especially children, playing different games of chance, the ruling passion of this people. Such are the ceremonies of this day, which the Chinese consecrate to the memory of their ancestors and friends.

A great part of the roasted poultry was left all night on the tombs. The common people imagine that, in the night of this ceremony, the

dead assemble and regale themselves. The unhappy strew along the graves of their ancestors, whom they most regard, amulets, to induce them to interest themselves in their misfortunes. These amulets are pieces of silk paper, on which is spread a sheet of leaf-silver: it is considered to be paper-money, which passes current among the dead.

The Chinese are so numerous at Batavia, and so easily stirred up, that the policy of the Dutch is always careful to give them some kind of amusement. To accomplish this, their chief, who has the title of captain, is obliged to maintain, at his own cost, a troop of public Malay girls, termed *rouquins*, and on the Malabar and Coromandel coasts *bayaders*. These girls, every day without exception, from nine o'clock at night till daybreak, act a play in the middle of the street, on a kind of theatre built in the Chinese campong. It is difficult to give an idea of the performance, which always seems to represent the wars of the Tartars against the Chinese. It appears as though various chiefs, differently dressed, their faces smeared black and white, or masked, came to announce a new war, in which they anticipate great success: they harangue the soldiers with variety of gestures and grimaces; then comes a general or high-priest, by his dress, who, after talking, exclaims

and gesticulates some time, gets up and seats himself on a bamboo-seat, raised on a small table of the same, placed to remain at the back of the centre of the theatre. After he has made a kind of speech, the combatants appear. The Chinese have each a different head-dress and costume; they are armed with lances, or rather iron-shod sticks, seven or eight feet long, which serve both for offence and defence. They twist them about their bodies, and make use of them in parrying blows. The Tartars are in uniforms, short coats, large trowsers, and hats or caps like a callotte; they are armed with a sabre and great shield, which covers the head and half the body. These combats end with more speeches by the chiefs and high-priest, on the courage of the soldiers.

The roaring music of gonggoms, which sound equal to, striking four or five great kettles, never stops during the performance. The *rouguins* enact every character. They always have a great number of Chinese, and some Europeans, strangers from Batavia, as spectators.

About the theatre, and along the principal street of the Chinese campong, in the midst of which it is built, are immense numbers of gaming and eating tables, all Chinese. The seats as well as tables are made of bamboo; many strangers take a walk and sup there: they eat with

little sticks, which serve as forks; the spoons are of common china, with a short crooked handle. In their eating-places is an endless variety of victuals; each portion is served up on a small plate like a saucer. The eatables consist of jelly, mince, or soup, and are almost always cold: their drinks, on the contrary, are always hot; one kind, called *Tonyon*, is made of arrack, sugar, and hot water.

One of their favourite dishes is a dog, which they eat with every kind of sauce. They have a particular species with a smooth skin, which they fatten, and are very partial to, as well as to pig; of which no nation eats so much as the Chinese. The hundred thousand Chinese at Batavia may be reckoned to feed from three to four hundred thousand pigs: there is not a family which does not keep many, and which contributes, in no small degree, to promote the bad air and filthiness prevalent in their campong, and about their houses.

Independently of the playhouse, in the streets of the campong, are processions of men with masked or painted faces, kettle-drums, gongoms, and tambarines; many are dressed as devils, who are carried in triumph on poles, and others in hampers, ornamented with paper, ribands, and little bells, seated on monsters, like our representation of sea-horses.

The reason they give for these feasts to the devil is, that the God of heaven and of earth being infinitely good, it is not necessary to implore him; that, on the contrary, the devil must be feasted and intreated, to amuse him, and prevent him, by this means, from temptations, and making tours fatal to the nation: consequently there is not a Chinese house which has not in the shop and chamber a great fat figure, painted on paper or on the wall, representing Confucius, their first lawgiver, whom they designate as a monstrous Chinese, and the devil at his side tempting him. On each side are pots of flowers, and tapers of red wax gilt, which are lighted on certain days, together with a little lamp in front, as in small Romish chapels.

The Chinese girls are always shut up and employed in sewing and embroidery: they are never seen in public, and are only known to be in the house by an earthen vase as long as a common flower-pot, placed on the roof, and which is broken on the day of their marriage, to signify that those who were there are no longer to be disposed of. The marriages are made between the parents, without the couple ever holding communication till their celebration. Once married, the women are equally shut up in the interior of their family, being only permitted to see their relations; the poorer sort

alone let them work and serve in their shops, but they are closely watched there. Notwithstanding the life of severity and slavery which the Chinese women lead, no people has more domestic virtues. The Chinese is a good son, a good father, good husband, and good friend; he carries gratitude almost to an extreme; it is natural to them, and they have been frequently known to offer and divide their fortune, or what little they had, with Europeans who had assisted or served them, and had become in turn necessitous. Many of the Chinese, however, are very depraved in their manners; so avaricious are some, that they let out the persons of their nieces, and even daughters, when they are under their care.

Batavia affords many examples of Chinese who, not having the means of making good their engagements, nor extending their trade, have made over their daughters to Europeans, as a security for money advanced. The wretched victims of this infamous traffic are slaves until the parents choose to redeem them by paying the loan; it is true that they transfer widows in preference.

Little need be said on the commercial genius and industry of the Chinese, whose disposition in that respect is well known. There are in and round Batavia some who carry on every

art and trade, engross all the house and ship building, and transact every kind of retail business. They are very active and ingenious, and particularly intelligent. They will execute any plan, however difficult; but they think extremely well of themselves, and are so excessively conceited of their own talents, that, in their opinion, no people can equal them. If a comparison is drawn between two similar objects, one made in their own, the other in another country, however inferior the former might be, they would give it the preference.

They are ill adapted to military science; but, although cowardly and effeminate, are inclined to revolt. Their immense population renders them very restless, but their insurrections never break out until they are fully assured that they are three or four times the number of their opponents, and the same in their private disputes.

In the villages of Java is always a Chinese chief, who is called a captain; in towns two, the second a lieutenant. These chiefs superintend their laws, religion, and private police. In serious matters, and in disputes with the Europeans and natives, reference is made to the fiscal.

The Chinese pay enormous annual duties on their industry and trade, which are collected by the Company. They pay a duty for being allowed to let their nails grow very long, especially

those on their little fingers. This is considered a great luxury amongst them, as it is an unequivocal proof that they do not work for their living.

The twisted tail, which they wear extremely long, sometimes down to their knees, pays in proportion to its length; which is regulated and measured every year at a fixed time.

Their dress consists of large trowsers, and round coats which reach to the middle of the thighs; they are always of black, or very bright sky-blue. They use white for mourning, which, for very near relations, is designated by a rent in the collar.

They have the dangerous custom of keeping corpses in the house for seven entire days; though, from the heat of the climate, they become putrid in a few hours; a custom pernicious not only to the immediate family, but to the neighbourhood. A Chinese house, where a death has happened, is known by a white cloth hung in lieu of the door.

CHAPTER IV.

*Environs of Batavia.—Welte-Freden.—Tanabang.
 —Mester-Cornelis.—Isles of Cambusa and Onrus.
 —Description of Tijelenking—Its false Bay.—
 Sacred Trees.—Tombs of the Kramates.—Vege-
 table Poisons.—Bohon Upas, or Antliars, &c.
 Their Antidote—Andira.*

THE camp where all the troops are, in bamboo barracks, situated near the city, being in a low and unhealthy situation, and the high regency of Batavia having, in 1799, received the 12th French battalion as an auxiliary troop, a new camp was established in a woody plain, a league and a half up the country, upon an airy site, the land of which is dry and the vicinage little marshy. It is called Welte-Freden, and French Camp. The road to it is the fine causeway, which is part of the ride from Jacatra. On one side it is dotted with country-houses belonging to the counsellors of the Indies, and which are so many palaces; and, on the other, a navigable canal, on the right bank of which are Indian hamlets. Quitting the city on the left, is a work called the Water-platz, in which are some guns of a middling calibre, and a barrack and guard-house for the Madurans and Sammanapps. Three

quarters of a mile on this side the camp is a barrack and post for cavalry entirely Europeans. In front of the military hospital is a fine sluice, placed on the great river, to preserve the water, which would otherwise be lost in a branch which there falls into it, and to supply all the navigable canals, and inundate the environs, in case military operations should render it necessary.

After passing the sluice, leaving on the left the avenue which leads into the midst of the Chinese tombs, the camp appears in the shape of a long square, about half a league in circumference; on the two near fronts are the officers' houses; those of the field-officers are isolated; the other form two rows of buildings, in which each has his particular room, according to his rank. The barracks, which are built of wood and stone, occupy a third of the ground, on the side opposite the entrance; the remaining space is appropriated for exercising. The engineers' camp has accommodation for four officers; it is isolated, and within two gun-shots behind the extremity of the right front of the grand camp, in a small plain formed by a creek in the great river. Their residence occupies two fronts of the creek; the intermediate ground is planted with cocoa and different very large trees, which always supply shade, air, and a pleasant

walk : the situation is altogether picturesque. As this place is very lonely, and the natives thievish and cruel, particularly after smoking opium, an European sentinel is placed there every night. At the extremity of the little attached gardens runs the river with a small Malay village, and the hospital burial-ground, planted with trees of different kinds in front. An avenue, forming the left front of Welte-Freden, leads to a large Chinese village only separated from the barracks by a ditch, over which is a bridge. A large general market is held there daily.

The road from Mester-Cornelis joins the bridge; opposite the officers' dwelling, which occupies the right front of the camp, runs the great road, which leads to a pretty country-house of M. Siberg, the late governor. One end of the house joins the camp; another is fronted by a Chinese village, and the great river runs behind it. The gardens, which are open to the public, are magnificent.

Between the military hospital and horse barracks already mentioned, is Tanabang causeway, to the right of which is the grand cemetery of Batavia, surrounded by a wall seven feet high.

Tanabang is a large Malay village, in which are several Chinese families; a great market is held there the year through. This village is on a height, two leagues and a half from the city;

there is also a very pretty country-house belonging to counsellor Rymsdeck. On the same causeway, a little beyond the cemetery of Batavia, and on the same side, is an immense plain, where the grand reviews and manœuvring of troops take place.

Mester-Cornelis is a small fort, a full league from Welte-Freden; the road to it is very pleasant and even, passing, from the camp, directly opposite M. Siberg's front gate. A gun-shot farther, on the right, is a considerable Indian town; a little nearer, on the other side, a Chinese village, and afterwards, at various distances, many other Malay towns, as large as the first, separated by meadows: on the right is an immense plain of maize, in which is another large Malay and Chinese village, and beyond it an avenue leading to a country-house, commanding a fine view of the plain.

On this road are several *varaus*, or Indian huts, where are sold boiled rice and roasted maize, to which the Chinese and Malays are very partial, as well as fruit and betel.

The ground rises insensibly to Mester-Cornelis, which is discovered about half a mile off. This fort lies in a hollow; on the bank of the great river, and is commanded by a small height: on the right and left of the road are bamboo barracks for the Maduran artillery, of which this is

the dépôt: the recruits in daily training are six hundred.

The fort is built of stone, but is not strong; the demi-bastions are scarcely two feet thick, and four high; it has some moderately sized guns, and is surrounded by a dry ditch, partly filled up. The entrance is by a stone bridge; within is a guardhouse, occupied by M. Phils, a native of France, who, from major in the Dutch artillery, was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel commandant of the place. He was one of the expedition sent in search of La Pérouse, under the command of D'Entrecasteaux.

At the side of this is another house occupied by European artillery. The fort is quitted by another bridge, on the opposite side, communicating with a range of wooden barracks, in which are the artillery officers, and the companies which are formed and trained there.

A Malay prince has been many years confined in a small room behind the guardhouse: he is the eldest son of the last king of Bantam but one. On his father's death he wished to enjoy his right of inheritance; but the India Company, thinking it more politic to give the crown to his uncle, this prince made a considerable party in the country, and declared war against his uncle for the recovery of his throne; but he was vanquished, made prisoner, and shut up in

Mester-Cornelis, under the responsibility of the commandant of artillery.

This prince goes without shoes, and in no other costume than that of the common Malaya; his food is only rice, pimento, and fish, with betel occasionally. He is attended by a Javan, and is allowed to walk in the fort-yard. He still expresses a hope of resuming his throne. He was so glad of a glass of arrack, which the European officers sometimes gave him, that he promised to reward them when he should be king; but the sentinels were shortly afterwards desired not to let him hold any communication with them.

In going to Batavia, through the Straits of Sunda, are several small islands; among them that of the Great Cambusa, which is not large enough to be inhabited; but always has a small guard of artillery with one gun, as a signal to ships entering the Strait. Next to this, on the right is the isle of Onrus; it is fortified with several pieces of cannon, fifty European infantry and some artillery-men, the whole under the command of a lieutenant. The post is very unpleasant, from the unwholesomeness of the island; it has been observed that no detachment ever returned from it complete; some always drop off, and the survivors are in a very languid state. It is, notwithstanding, the only place where the Company can

build and test vessels. The timber-yards are very good.

About five leagues *n.* of Batavia is the great Malay village of Tijelenking; it is intersected by a river which unites with the Antijol, and the mouth of which is at the extremity of a kind of small bay, containing no where more than six or eight inches depth of water on an oyster-bottom. In the middle is a serpentine channel, which goes to the mouth: it is twelve to fifteen feet wide, and two to four feet deep: it is only navigable for small country boats and large canoes, of which the river is always full, as far as a large wooden bridge which crosses it, and communicates to a considerable bazar, which the Chinese hold all the year, for the sale of every kind of eatable and stuffs used in India. At Tijelenking all the roofs of the houses are made of the leaves of the cocoa-tree, and which are adopted in the environs of Batavia. From this place is derived most of the salted and fresh fish for the consumption of the city and the neighbouring country. Much salt is also made here.

At the end of the bazar is a fine house belonging to an European merchant.

Along the coast and near the point which forms the false bay is ten feet water on a sandy bottom. Going out of the bay is ten feet water,

at the mouth of the channel, and then gradually six, eight, and ten.

A short distance from the village, on the right bank of the river, above the bridge, are two roads which cross the country to the back of Batavia. On the left bank, at the end of the bridge, is a great road leading to the sea-coast at Tjiljong-Priek Point, and thence, by Tolbruck, to the city. From the end of this bridge, where the great road begins, is a direct communication with the coast by a very narrow mound raised in the marshes, beyond a small wood which must be traversed to get to it. Half a league from Tjiljongking, upon the coast, and on the causeway, of Batavia, is a pretty seat of M. Van Bassel, a Dutch merchant. It is surrounded by a Malay village; the inhabitants subsist on fish, and on the produce of the cocoa-trees, with which the coast and environs abound. The oil which they extract from the cocoa, when fresh, is as good as olive-oil, but in a few days it is only fit for burning and tanning; the Indians, however, use it in frying. A little further, on the same side, is the great village of Coljak, half the inhabitants of which are Chinese; the houses occupy the space of three quarters of a mile from the coast. Fish and cocoa-trees are also a principal part of their resources. The Chinese have several yards on the

most for building and repairing large canoes. Almost all the houses of this village are built of bamboo, and raised on large piles ten feet above the ground, especially those on the sea-shore. This precaution is necessary to secure them from the tigers and serpents. One room serves the whole family; the floors are made of rotang, with holes in it, that the air may circulate freely; the beds consist of a single mat, as is the case with all those of the natives of the Sunda islands.

Next to this, still following the coast, is the point of Tanjong-Priok, the name of a large fine stone house belonging to counsellor Rymeldeck. It is entirely isolated on the sea-shore, and has no other protection than that of some Indian huts. Tanjong-Priok Point is conspicuous from the many trees which surround a *bramate's* tomb.

The *bramates* are Malay priests, who, having made a journey to Mecca, are considered as saints after their death. Those who survive, to make the situation of their graves respected, plant a tree, resembling the tamarind, which they call *shered* and poisoned; a very corrosive gum oozes from it. They plant in addition, at the foot of each tree, a creeper, which soon entwines the trunk and branches, and emits a liquid which is a very subtle poison. It is not improbable that this creeper gave rise to the fable of the

bohon-upas, a tree "whose smell," says a Dutch doctor, "is so powerful and poisonous, that no plant can grow within a league and a half of it, and all the birds which come within that distance of it instantly die *."

The island of Java contains every kind of serpent. The most dangerous, whose bite is mortal; are the smallest; they are scarcely thicker than a common candle, and from two to three feet long: their colours are various; some are grey, spotted with white; others green, with bright red spots and white streaks. They are common in the plain of Welte-Freden and about the engineers' camp; attention is therefore paid to examine the rooms occasionally, for these reptiles often insinuate themselves under the table, and beds. M. Tombe killed one which was pursued by a brother-officer. He gave it two cuts with his sabre, and thought it dead; but an hour afterwards wondered to see it move. It lived fifteen days, which was not considered a matter of surprise, as it was of the species slowest of digestion. It measured sixteen feet in length, colour iron-grey with white spots, and of a most dangerous

kind. **Colonel Leguyisse**, a native of France, born at **Orléans**, who had been twenty-five years in the Company's service, had, at his house, a live serpent which all the Europeans went to see. It was

* See on Vegetable Poisons, page 330.—Editor.

of the thickness of a man's arm, and nearly twenty feet long. It would swallow a fowl as we swallow an oyster; but it was not dangerous. The colonel has another, stuffed, as thick as a man, and fifteen feet long. These large kinds are most commonly found in the Chinese and Malay cemeteries. The salamander is a lizard as thick as an arm, and about two feet long. This creature avoids man, but destroys poultry, and the Indians therefore call it fowl-eater. It is amphibious, and may be found in the morning on the river sides*.

But one of the greatest inconveniences which M. Tombe experienced, particularly in the rainy season, was the clouds of great winged ants, as large as honey-bees, which so annoyed him with their buzzing, that he was obliged, in the middle of the night, to get out of bed, and walk into the yard till they had all entered; for they fell the instant after in every direction, particularly about his chamber-lamp. In the morning they lay upon the ground dead or crawling; and such as could not get quickly enough into holes to hide themselves, were eaten or drawn away by a lesser

* I can scarcely think the reptile here spoken of, is the salamander. It seems more likely to be a species of *Iguana* (*Iguana Ambolnensis*), which is very common in the islands of Java and Ambon; its flesh is very delicate and savoury.

kind of black ant, nests of which are found in all parts of the house, in spite of every precaution to the contrary. To keep provisions, the feet of whatever they are placed in, are put into jugs or holes of water, which must be always kept full.

There is likewise the building-ant, which is the most destructive. In a single night these ants make subterraneous passages, whence they get about and into every kind of furniture, and gnaw a trunk of linen, books, and papers, so as to render them useless. If the servants once omit to destroy these kind of galleries, the contents of the house would almost be in danger. They are called carias, and are so destructive that they eat away the wood, little by little, so that houses have at last been abandoned, because they were in danger of falling, the timber was so full of them*.

The montouke is an animal less troublesome, but equally voracious. It is a thick white maggot, which lives in the wood, and so eats it away, that the backs of chairs, and feet of drawers, although apparently sound, are frequently rotten within, and fall into dust when it is least suspected. This creature may sometimes be heard at work. It is as big as a silk-worm and

* These white ants are the *termites*. — *Savignol*.

very white, a mere lump of fat. Thirty are roasted together threaded on a little stick, and are delicate eating. They are commonly found on the feet of old bamboos*.

ON VEGETABLE POISONS.

The existence of the *bohon-upasia* the island of Java can scarcely be a matter of doubt; and if Mr. Tombe has not met with it, it must be from his not having traversed those districts in which, unhappily for mankind, this dangerous tree grows. The following passage from "The Monthly Repository," gives some particulars of the tree in question. The writer is an Englishman, and only signs his initials C. H.

"In the year 1774 I was stationed at Batavia, as a surgeon, in the service of the Dutch East India Company. During my residence there,

* It is the larva of some large beetle.—*Sourin*.

† It is very singular, that a man of science and literature, for such M. Sonnerin certainly is, should have made a reference, so incorrectly, that the article which he refers to cannot be discovered by it. Such is the case with the present reference. But far more extraordinary is it, that a gentleman so studied in natural history should, at this time, not know that such an account is the notorious fabrication which first acquired celebrity in this country, by Dr. Darwin's introduction of it into his "Botanic Garden, or Loves of the Plants," from the London Magazine, into which it was translated from the publication of M. Forster, for a high character of the veracity of whom, see page 330. I have retained the narrative, which the reader will probably peruse if he has not already met with it, and is in a disposition for romance-reading. It is a great pity, however, to deprive C. H. of such flourishing laurels, in whatever periodical work he may have planted them.—*Editor*.

I received several different accounts of the bohon-upas, and the violent effects of its poison. They all then seemed incredible to me, but raised my curiosity in so high a degree, that I resolved to investigate this subject thoroughly, and depend not only to my own observations. In consequence of this resolution, I applied to the governor-general, M. Petrus Albertus van der Parra, to allow me to pass to travel through the country; my request was granted; and, having procured every information, I set out on my expedition. I had procured a recommendation from an old Malay priest to another priest, who lives on the most inhabitable spot to the tree, which is about fifteen or sixteen miles distant. The letter proved of great service to me in my undertaking, as that priest is appointed by the emperor to reside there, in order to prepare for eternity, the souls of those who, for different crimes, are sentenced to approach the tree to procure the poison. The bohon-upas is situated in the island of Java, about twenty-seven leagues from Batavia, fourteen from Soura-charta, the seat of the emperor, and between eighteen and twenty leagues from Tinkoe, the present residence of the sultan of Java. It is surrounded, on all sides, by a circle of high hills and mountains; and the country round it, to the distance of ten or twelve miles from the tree, is entirely barren. Not a tree, nor a shrub, nor even the least plant or grass, is to be seen. I have made the tour all around this dangerous spot, at about eight or nine miles distance from the centre, and I found the aspect of the country on all sides equally dreary. The easiest ascent of the hills is from that part where the old ecclesiastic dwells.

house the criminals are sent for the poison, into which the points of tall staff-like instruments are dipped. It is of high value, and produces a considerable revenue to the emperor.

The poison which is procured from this tree is a gum that issues out between the bark and the tree itself, like the daphne. Malefactors who, for their crimes, are sentenced to die, have the only persons who fetch the poison; and this is the only chance they have of saving their lives. After sentence is pronounced upon them by the judge, they are asked in court, whether they will die by the hands of the executioner, or whether they will go to the upas-tree for a box of poison. They commonly prefer the latter proposal, as there is not only some chance of preserving their lives, but also a certainty, in case of their safe return, that a provision will be made for them in future by the emperor. They are also permitted to ask a favour from the emperor, which is generally of a trifling nature, and commonly granted. They are then provided with a silver or tortoise-shell box, into which they are to put the poisonous gum, and are properly instructed how to proceed while they are upon their dangerous expedition. Among other particulars, they are always told to attend to the direction of the winds, as they are to go towards the tree, before the wind, so that the effluvium from the tree is always blown from them. They are told likewise, to travel with the utmost dispatch, as that is the only method of insuring a safe return. They are afterwards sent to the house of the old priest, to which place they are commonly attended by their friends and relations. Here they generally remain some days, in expectation of a

favourable breeze. During that time the monastic prepares them for their future fate, by prayers and admonitions. When the hour of their departure arrives, the priest puts them on a long leather cap, with two glasses before their eyes, which comes down as far as their breast, and also provides them with a pair of leather gloves. They are then conducted by the priest, and their friends and relations, about two miles on their journey: here the priest repeats his instructions; and tells them where they are to look for the tree. He shows them a hill, which they are told to ascend, and that, on the other side, they will find a rivulet, which they are to follow, and which will conduct them directly to the upas. They now take leave of each other, and amidst prayers for their success, the delinquents hasten away. The worthy old recluse has assured me, that during his residence there, for upwards of thirty years, he had dismissed above seven hundred criminals in the manner, which I have described, and that scarcely two out of twenty returned. He showed me a catalogue of all the unhappy sufferers, with the date of their departure from his house annexed; and a list of the offences for which they had been condemned, to which was added, a list of those who had returned in safety. Afterwards saw another list of these culprits, at the jail-keeper's at Sourabaya; and found that they perfectly corresponded with each other, and with the different informations which I afterwards obtained. I was present at some of these melancholy ceremonies, and desired different delinquents to bring with them some pieces of the wood, or a small branch, or some leaves of this wonderful tree. I have also

gave them silk cords, desiring them to measure its thickness. I never could procure more than two dry leaves, that were picked up by one of them on his return; and all I could learn from him, concerning the tree itself, was, that it stood on the border of a rivulet, as described by the old priest; that it was of a middling size; that five or six young trees of the same kind stood close by it; but that no other shrub or plant could be seen near it; and that the ground was of a brownish sand, full of stones, almost impracticable for travelling, and covered with dead bodies. After many conversations with the old Malayan priest, I questioned him about the first discovery, and asked his opinion of this dangerous tree; upon which he gave me the following answer:—'We are told in our new Alcoran, that, above an hundred years ago, the country around the tree was inhabited by a people strongly addicted to the sins of Sodom and Gomorrah; when the great prophet Mahomet determined not to suffer them to lead such detestable lives any longer, he applied to God to punish them: upon which God caused to grow out of the earth this tree, which destroyed them all, and rendered the country ever uninhabitable.'—Such was the Malayan opinion. I shall not attempt a comment; but must observe, that all the Malaysians consider this tree as an holy instrument of the great prophet to punish the sins of mankind; and, therefore, to die of the poison of the wax, is generally considered among them as an honourable death. For that reason I also observed, that the delinquents, who were going to the tree, were generally dressed in their best apparel. This however is certain, though it may

appear incredible, that, from fifteen to eighteen miles round this tree, not only no human creature can exist, but that, in that space of ground, no living animal of any kind has ever been discovered. I have also been assured by several persons of veracity, that there are no fish in the waters, nor has any rat, mouse, or any other vermin, been seen there; and when any birds fly so near this tree, that the effluvia reaches them, they fall a sacrifice to the effects of the poison. This circumstance has been ascertained by many delinquents, who, in their return, have seen the birds drop down, and have picked them up dead, and brought them to the old confessor. I will here mention an instance, which proves the fact beyond all doubt, and which happened during my stay at Java.

In 1775 a rebellion broke out among the subjects of the Massay, a sovereign prince, whose dignity is nearly equal to that of the emperor. They refused to pay a duty, imposed upon them by their sovereign, whom they openly opposed. The Massay sent a body of a thousand troops to disperse the rebels, and to drive them, with their families, out of his dominions. Thus four hundred families, consisting of above six hundred souls, were obliged to leave their native country. Neither the emperor nor the sultan would give them protection, not only because they were rebels, but also through fear of displeasing their neighbour the Massay. In this distressful situation they had no other resource than to repair to the uncultivated parts round the upas, and requested permission of the emperor to settle there. Their request was granted, on condition of their fixing their abode not more than twelve or fourteen

men, miles from the tree, in order not to deprive the inhabitants, already settled there at a greater distance, of their lands! With this they were obliged to comply; but the consequence was, that, in less than two months, their number was reduced to about three hundred. The chief of those who remained returned to the Massay, informed him of their losses, and entreated his pardon, which induced him to receive them again as subjects, thinking them sufficiently punished for their misconduct. I have seen and conversed with several of those who survived, soon after their return. They all had the appearance of persons tainted with an infectious disorder; they looked pale and weak, and, from the account which they gave of the loss of their comrades, and of the symptoms and circumstances which attended their dissolution, such as convulsions, and other signs of a violent death, I was fully convinced they felt victims to the poison. This violent effect of the poison, at so great a distance from the tree, certainly appears surprising, and almost incredible; and especially when we consider that it is possible for delinquents, who approach the tree, to return alive. My wonder, however, in a great measure ceased, after I had made the following observation: I have said before, that malefactors are instructed to go to the tree with the wind, and to return against the wind. When the wind continues to blow from the same quarter, while the delinquent travels thirty, or six and thirty miles, if he be of a good constitution, he certainly survives. But what proves the most destructive is, that there is no dependence on the wind in that part of the world for any length of time. There

are not regular land-winds; and the sea winds are not perceived there at all, the situation of the tree being at too great a distance, and surrounded by high mountains and uncultivated forests. Besides; the wind there never blows a fresh regular gale; but is commonly merely a current of light soft breezes, which pass through the different openings of the adjoining mountains. It is also frequently difficult to determine from what part of the globe the wind really comes; as it is divided by various obstructions in its passage, which easily change the direction of the wind, and often totally destroy its effects. I, therefore, impute the distant effects of the poison, in a great measure, to the constant gentle winds in those parts, which have not power enough to disperse the poisonous particles. If high winds were more frequent and durable there, they would certainly weaken very much, and even destroy, the obnoxious effluvia of the poison; but without them the air remains infected and pregnant with those poisonous vapours. I am the more convinced of this, as the worthy ecclesiastic assured me that a dead calm is always attended with the greatest danger, as there is a continual perspiration issuing from the tree, which is seen to rise and spread in the air like the patrial steam of a marshy cavern.

In the year 1776, in the month of February, I was present at the execution of thirteen of the emperor's concubines, at Soutacharta, who were convicted of infidelity to the emperor's bed. It was in the forenoon, about eleven o'clock, when the four criminals were led into an open space within the walls of the emperor's palace. There the judge passed sentence on them, by which

they were doomed to suffer death by a lance, poisoned with iapas. After this the Alcoran was presented to them, and they were, according to the law of the great prophet Mahomet, to acknowledge, and to affirm by oath, that the charges brought against them, together with the sentence and their punishment, were fair and equitable. This they did by laying their right hand upon the Alcoran, their left hand upon their breast, and their eyes lifted towards heaven; the judge then held the Alcoran to their lips, and they kissed it. These ceremonies over, the executioners proceeded, on his business in the following manner: Thirteen posts, each about five feet high, had been previously erected. To these the delinquents were fastened, and their breasts stripped naked. In this situation they remained a short time in continual prayer, attended by several priests, until a signal was given, by the judge, to the executioner; on which the latter produced an instrument, much like the spring-lance used by farmers for bleeding horses. With this instrument, it being poisoned by the gum of the iapas, the unhappy wretches were lanced in the middle of their breasts, and the operation was performed upon them all in less than two minutes. My astonishment was raised to the highest degree, when I beheld the sudden effect of that poison; for, in about five minutes after they were lanced, they were taken with a tremor attended with a *subitus tenditum*, after which they died in the greatest agonies, crying out to God and Mahomet for mercy. In sixteen minutes, by my watch, which I held in my hand, all the criminals were gone to meet their fate. Some hours after their death, I observed their bodies full of

livid spots, much like those of the *pitahia*; their faces swelled, their colour changed to a kind of blue, their eyes looked yellow, &c. &c.

"About a fortnight after this, I had an opportunity of seeing such another execution at Samarang. Seven Malaysians were executed there with the same instrument, and in the same manner; and I found the operation of the poison, and the spots in their bodies, exactly the same.

"These circumstances made me desirous to try an experiment with some animals, in order to be convinced of the real effects of this poison; and as I had then two young puppies, I thought them the fittest objects for my purpose. I accordingly procured, with great difficulty, some grains of upas. I dissolved half a grain of that gum in a small quantity of arrack, and dipped a lancet into it. With this poisoned instrument I made an incision in the lower muscular part of the belly, in one of the puppies. Three minutes after it received the wound, the animal began to cry out most piteously, and ran as fast as possible from one corner of the room to the other. So it continued during six minutes, when all its strength being exhausted, it fell upon the ground, was taken with convulsions, and died in the eleventh minute. I repeated this experiment with two other puppies, with a rat, and with a fowl, and found the operations of the poisons in all of them the same. None of these animals survived above thirteen minutes with you.

"I thought it necessary to try also the effect of the poison given inwardly, which I did in the following manner: I dissolved a quarter of a grain of the gum in half an ounce of arrack, and made a dog, of seven months old, drink it, and

seven minutes after, a itching ensued, and I observed, at the same time, that the animal was delirious, as it ran up and down the room, fell on the ground, and tumbled about; then it rose again, cried out very loud, and about half an hour after was seized with convulsions, and died. I opened the body, and found the stomach very much inflamed, as the intestines were, in some parts; but not so much as the stomach. There was a small quantity of coagulated blood in the stomach; but I could discover no office from which it could have issued; and therefore supposed it to have been squeezed out of the lungs, by the animal's straining while it was vomiting. From these experiments I have been convinced, that the genus of the upas is the most dangerous and most violent of all vegetable poisons; and I am apt to believe that it greatly contributes to the unhealthiness of that island. Nor is this the only evil attending it: hundreds of the natives of Jayapas well as Europeans, are yearly destroyed; and treacherously murdered, by that poison, either internally or externally. Every man of quality or fashion has his dagger or other arms poisoned with it; and, in times of war, the Malayans poison the springs and other waters with it; by this treacherous practice the Dutch suffered greatly during the last war, as it occasioned the loss of half their army. For this reason they have ever since kept fish in the springs of which they drink the water, and sentinels are placed near them, who inspect the waters every hour, to see whether the fish are alive. If they march with an army, or body of troops, into an enemy's country, they always carry the fish with them, which they throw into the water when

hours before they venture to drink it; by which means they have been able to prevent their total destruction."

Other travellers have given nearly similar accounts of the bohon-upas, but they rather incline to the marvellous. A scientific gentleman, who accompanied D'Entrecasteaux in his expedition in search of La Pérouse, M. Deschamps, a physician, asserts, that the bohon-upas certainly exists in Java, but that the stories with which it abounds only arise from mistake. The following notes on the subject of this tree were communicated by M. Deschamps to M. Malte-Brun, who has published them in his French edition of the *Voyage to Cochin-China*, &c. by Barrow, vol. ii. p. 267, &c.

"The bohon-upas is common in the province of Bilembouang. It looks like an elm; and grows to the height of about thirty or forty feet. The leaves are alternate, oval, and rough to the touch. The flowers are dioecial and axillary. The male, formed of a round receptacle, sprinkled with stamina, resembles that of a doorstan: the female has two pistils. The fruit is round, and contains a kernel. On breaking a branch of the tree, a milky juice runs from it, and immediately condenses itself: it is the famous poison. Mixed with the blood, it kills almost instantaneously. The Javans eat the animals killed by means of this poison, without feeling any ill effects from it.

"The fiction which has gone abroad of the very atmosphere of the tree being mortal, is unfounded, as I have myself cut branches from it; but originates in the following circumstance:

"The sovereigns of Java, who are much em-

barrassed by the great number of brothers which the custom of polygamy produces, get rid of them, by banishing them, with other state-criminals, to very marshy and unhealthy islands, situate on the southern coast of the great island. As the greater part of these exiles perish there, the people have the idea that they are killed by the exhalations of the *bohon-upas*."—*Sannini*.

Memoir on the Strychnos-taute, Antiaris-toxicaria, and Andira Harsfieldii, of the Island of Java. By M. Leschenault, Naturalist travelling at the Expense of Government.—Taken from Annales du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle, Cap. XI. XII. p. 457. &c. in which are engravings of the three plants.—Editor.

In the equatorial regions, the juices of plants, incessantly at work, from the effect of continual vegetation, have a degree of intensity far beyond that in temperate countries; plants, whether salutary or the reverse, have greater power. This fact is proved by the great number of valuable products which the arts and physic are obliged to procure from hot climates, at a heavy expense. If some of these products can be substituted by analogous plants in our own climate, they are very inferior in quality and in efficacy.

There undoubtedly are no plants more noxious than those which supply the inhabitants of the place where they grow with the poison which they put on to the points of their arrows: these poisons are secreted under different forms in vegetables, whence they are extracted by various means. Man, always ready to lay hold on whatever can add to his strength, seems every

where to have discovered this fatal secret of nature; and to have added thereto, to his utmost, either by a mixture to increase the activity of these poisons, or by his mode of making use of them.

The use of poisoned arrows is of remote antiquity: the Gauls employed them, but merely in hunting; the Scythians and Brachmans assailed the Macedonians with poisoned arrows. It is prevalent in the hot countries of both hemispheres; but European travellers, either misled by the natives, who seem, universally, to make a secret, to foreigners, of these dreadful preparations, or not having made the necessary researches, have hitherto given but very vague and indefinite accounts of the effects of these poisons, and of the plants which produce them. The savages of Surinam are known to poison their arrows with the juice of a large tree, but the species of tree is not known; the ahouaiguacu, plane or curara, and the woorara, which grows on the banks of the Amazons River, are plants which the natives of America use for poisoning their weapons, but we have no description of these plants. Salt, sea-water, or sugar, taken in a great quantity, are said to oppose their action. M. de la Condamine, in the account of his voyage, gives some detail of the poison prepared from the Ticunas: he says, that more than thirty species of herbs or roots, and particularly certain creeping plants, are in the composition which is in common use in the Amazons River; but he describes none of the vegetables of which it is composed. According to his account there is no danger in eating the game killed with arrows dipped in this poison; the natives assured

him that sugar was a certain antidote to it. M. de la Condamine procured several of these poisoned arrows, and, above a year afterwards, made experiments with them at Cayenne. Animals struck with these arrows died in terrible convulsions; a fowl pierced, but instantly made to swallow sugar, survived: other experiments were afterwards made by him at Leyden, where the sugar given to the wounded animals succeeded but indifferently; a hen which swallowed a considerable quantity seemed merely to live somewhat longer than the rest.

The celebrated travellers, Baron Humbolt and Bonpland, have, however, ascertained the mode of preparing the poison used on the Amazons River, and the creeper curara which supplies it: they happened neither to find it in blossom nor in fruit; but Messrs. de Jussieu and Willdenow, after examining its branches, are of opinion that it belongs to the genus *coriaria*. Subjoined is an extract of a letter from M. Humbolt, on the poisons of South America, and a note, communicated by M. Bosc, on the plant which the North American savages use for poisoning their arrows:

On the Oroonoko, from the cataracts of Atures to the sources of the river (east of Mount Duida), the natives distinguish two vegetable poisons by the names of curara of roots, and curara of the stem, of a creeper. The Indians who inhabit the village Mandavaca, situate on the banks of the Casiquare and Esmeralda, are famous for preparing these poisons, which are equally in use in war and in the chase: they form a very considerable branch of trade. Half a pound of curara, preserved in the fruit of the crescentia,

costs the missionaries of St. Francis from six to seven francs, about the price of eight to ten days labour. Thousands of Indians make daily use of arrows poisoned with the curara, without knowing the plant whence it is derived: its preparation is the secret and monopoly of some old men, termed Masters of Poison. In crossing from Riotemi to Punich, in the forests of Javita, while our canoe was got over the carrying-place of Rio Negro, our guide was an Indian, who was acquainted with the creeper, the root and stem of which supplied the raiz curara. The name of this creeper is mavacura: it has the appearance of a phyllanthus, but the leaves are contrary, oval, pointed at the top, and have three cavities.

"In going up the Casiquare, the arm of the Oroonoko which connects that river with the Guiana, or Rio Negro, we undertook the dangerous course of the Esmeralda, for the sake of seeing the poison prepared. The creeper which is used comes from the distant mountains of Guanaya and Jumariquin: it is also called mavacura, but it seemed, both to M. Bompland and myself, to be a rubiaceae, from its *stipule* and opposite leaves. From the same place is procured the juvia, described by the name of *Burtholettia excelsa*, in our equinoctial plants, and a grass or reed, the joints of which are nearly six metres in length.

To prepare the curara of Esmeralda, they scrape the rind and sap of the stems of the mavacura, throw cold water upon it, filter the infusion, which is yellowish, and concentrate it by fire. It is absolutely false that blood, poison

of vipers, and other ingredients, as father Gummilla mentions, are mixed with it.

"As the venomous juice is not sufficiently thickened by the fire, to give consistency to the poison, the glutinous juice of the keraca-guero-tree is put to it: it is this juice principally which gives the curara the carbonic and olive tint, which makes it resemble opium. As the manufacture does not always succeed equally well, poisons of very different strength are found on the Oroonoko. They catch the small monkeys, which they sell to the white people, by wounding them with arrows, the point of which is touched with weak curara, and put common salt into the sore, to prevent the operation of the poison. Throughout the whole district of the Oroonoko, the muriate of salt-wort is looked upon as the most active counter-poison: unhappily salt is very scarce south of the Cataracts.

"In 1802, when M. Bompland and I were on the banks of the Amazons River, we were not so fortunate as to procure the flowers of the creepers, which yield the famous Ticunas poison, and that which is made at Mojobamba. We kept up a correspondence for a year after with the governor of the province of Jaën de Bracamoros, to obtain from him the blossoms and fruit; we only got the latter, and, from their insertion in a common receptacle, we supposed the plant to belong to the ménispermis family.

"Those so experienced in travel as you are, know the obstacles which impede botanical research: plants, even under the equator, flourish only in particular seasons. It is fortunate to procure the leaves or the fruit; but leaves, fruit, and blossom together, are more than can be

hoped for. You, my friend, were more fortunate in the forests of Java: your discoveries respecting the *boa-upas* are the more important, as all naturalists had conspired to confuse the object so worthy the attention of the literati.

"All the poisons of South America are concentrated juices, thickened by evaporation; the ebullition makes the poison more active, while it decomposes the venomous principle of the *jatropha manihot*. The curara is known in Guiana as a remedy which strengthens the stomach; it is always tasted by a purchaser, being active in proportion to its bitterness, and acts as poison only when it comes in contact with the blood."

"HUMBOLDT.

"*Paris, 22 November 1810.*"

"The cynanque of Carolina, of which there is a drawing by Jacquin, termed *vincetoxicon gonocarpus* by Walter, and *gonolobus macrophyllus* by Michaux, passes, in the country, for the plant which the savages use for poisoning their arrows. For this purpose they mix its juice with little balls of white clay, which they then place in cavities made on purpose, somewhat above the point of the arrow; this clay, being moistened by the blood, remains in the wound. The savages are said to have retained to this plant the name which formerly designated its use. I brought some seeds from America with me, but they have not grown."—*Bosc.*

Bruce gives some details of the vegetable poisons with which the natives of southern Africa poison their arrows. The plants whence these poisons are extracted are the *Amaryllis disticha*, *euphorbia caput Meduse*, and a species of *rhus*.

A young negro, named Bognam-nonen-demga, of the Macpas tribe, on the western coast of Africa; in the service of the celebrated traveller Michaux, the elder, told me that, in his country, arrows were poisoned by steeping them in the juice of a plant combined with the venom of an animal, which, from his description, I conceive to be a large species of scolopendra. Thunberg says, that the Hottentots employ a poison prepared with the juice of a kind of *lignum vite* (*sideroxylum toxiferum*, denominated by M. Deleuze, in a note on Darwin, *cestum*), and the venom of a serpent, but he enters into no particulars of its preparation or effects.

The famous poison which the Indians of the archipelago of the Moluccas and the Sunda Isles make use of, known by the name of ipo and upas (words which in those islands mean vegetable poison), has excited the curiosity of Europeans beyond every other, because the accounts given of it have been exaggerated, and accompanied by the marvellous with which the people of India like to adorn their narratives. These popular stories have been collected and confidently repeated by travellers, in other respects of value, from their excellent observation and long labours. In the *Ephémérides des Curieux de la Nature*, décurie 2, year 3 (1684), obs. 45 and 54, are the accounts, of André Cleyerus and Speilman, of the poison of Macassar, as an antidote to which they administer human excrement, taken internally, which acts as an emetic.

The laborious Rumphius calls the tree which produces the ipo, *arbor toxicaria*. He repeats what he was told by the natives, and gives an incomplete description and print of the tree, from

a branch and fruit, which were sent to him. I have reason to think that he was deceived, at least in the fruit, which certainly does not belong to the tree which furnishes the poison. Thunberg and Acymeloeus, according to the Dutch travellers above cited, have written a dissertation on the ipo of Macassar. The inestimable translator of Darwin, M. Deleuze, gives an extract from the dissertation, in a note, with a caution against believing the circumstances which it contains. The whole of these travellers have merely repeated what they were told: they may be accused of too great credulity, but not of wilful misrepresentation. It is not so with one Poereb, a Dutch physician, who has endeavoured to mislead Europe with a degree of impudence scarcely to be believed or forgiven. After having made a collection of the most absurd stories, to which he has added his own inventions, he, on his return to Europe, gave, as an eye-witness, a narrative*, accompanied by all those minute and circumstantial details, which are generally the seal of truth, and which prevent a man being accused of falsehood, unless he is held in the most profound contempt. This ridiculous fable has been long properly appreciated, and has been satisfactorily refuted by M. Charles Coquebert in the *Bulletin des Sciences de la Société Philomatique*. The naturalists and literati of Europe, without having any faith in these fables, wished to know the precise nature of these poisons. Inquiry was made at Java, but it was productive of little satisfaction, owing to the secrecy observed by the natives. They gave the lie to the fictions of the neighbouring states, but they were not

* See page 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

which had been spread abroad, but they did not ascertain the fact as to what really was in existence.

While Labillardiere was at Java he never heard mention of it. Lord Macartney, on his way to Batavia, made some inquiries, the result of which went to treat, as fabulous, the accounts brought to Europe, but gave no further satisfaction; the same answer was also given to the directors of the Dutch India Company, who wrote to India for information.

When I set out upon a voyage of discovery to the southern hemisphere, the respectable and learned M. de Jussieu recommended me, in the event of my landing at Java, to make every possible inquiry on the subject. I was very desirous to resolve the question, to which fortunate chance and some perseverance of research, have now enabled us to speak with certainty.

I procured not only the two species of poisons, or upas, which are collected and prepared at Java, but also those of the islands of Borneo and Macassar. I brought to Europe a great quantity of them, with which M. Delille, physician and botanist to the Egyptian expedition, and M. Magendie, have made an infinity of interesting experiments, which show the activity and mode of action of these poisons on the animal economy. These experiments, managed with equal skill and care, have been the subject of two memoirs read at the Institute, and of a dissertation delivered before the Faculty of Medicine at Paris, by M. Delille.

I shall now give the history of these poisons, how they are prepared, and a description of the plants they are extracted from.

I procured the poison, which, in the island of Borneo, is called ipo, at Sumanap in the island of Madura. A boat coming from that country, had on board one of those men who inhabit the interior of the mountains, and are denominated orang-daia; they are easily recognised, by their arms, which are tattooed with a blue substance which I suppose to be indigo. They are the only people of the island who are in possession of the secret of the plants which furnish the ipo, and who know how to prepare it; they keep it carefully rolled up in palm-leaves. The orang-daia, to check curiosity, or for some other reasons, talk much of the danger attendant on collecting the ipo; he whom I saw had a kind of pointed tube like a pea-shooter, and a small quiver full of poisoned arrows; they are the weapons most in use among the islanders both in hunting and in war: I bought them of him, as well as three rolls of ipo, on the gathering and preparing of which, not a word which he said was reasonable. The only positive fact I got from him, and which I afterwards verified, was, that the poison was prepared from very large creepers.

The orang-daia make their arrows with bits of slit bamboo; they are very thin, and about eight inches long; at the upper end is a bit of pith very like that of the elder-tree, which serves to force the arrow from the tube by the breathing as from a pea-shooter. The arrows used in the chase, are headed with sharp iron, and coated with ipo; those intended for war have a small shark's tooth or copper blade, which, slightly inserted in the shaft of the arrow, is only fastened by the resinous gum of the ipo; the warmth of the

blood dissolving it instantly, the point remains fixed in the wound, after the arrow is withdrawn; and the great quantity of poison it is plastered with, mixes in the blood, and causes speedy death. I made many experiments with small arrows coated with this ipo, on fowls, and on a dog: the fowls died in one, two, and three minutes, according as I suffered the poison to dissolve in the wounds; the dog died in eight minutes; I struck the arrow into the fore part of the thigh, about half an inch, and let it remain till he died. All the animals died in violent tetanous convulsions, which threw them backwards, and were intermittent.

The orang-daia showed me how to soften the ipo, and lay it on to the arrows. He took the root of a species of *ménispermis*, by the Malays called *touba*; from which he expressed the juice, and mixed it with the ipo; he then put some of this root into a pot, over the fire, with that of the *dioscorea triphylla*, in Malay, *gadong*; he added a small quantity of water; shut the pot with a lid, in the upper part of which he made a little hole for the steam to pass through, and, with the steam, he softened the ipo, and spread it on the arrows; he said that this was the method of his country, and that it revived, and gave a new strength to the poison.

The poison of Macassar, also called ipo, was given to me by Mr. Carrega, captain of a ship in the Dutch service, on his return from a voyage to that country. He learnt that it was a resinous gum from a large tree, mixed with the juice of the root of the *amomum zerumbet*, by the Malays termed *laspoulang*; he gave me no more parti-

culars; but I found that it was the same as one of those of Java of which I shall now treat.

There are two kinds, known by the name of upas, which the inhabitants, principally of the eastern part, lay on small bamboo arrows, which they blow through tubes and employ in the chase; they also mix the upas with rice or fruit; with this mixture they make a bait which soon destroys the animals which take it; the flesh of the animals so killed, or of those wounded with the poisoned arrows, retains no noxious quality; it is only requisite to cut out the parts, in immediate contact with the poison. The plants which produce them will only grow in the province of Bagnia-vaugni; one of these poisons is the upas antiar; the other, upas tieute; the latter is the strongest and least known, because it appears that the natives, even amongst themselves, make a secret of the preparation, which is much more complicated than that of the upas antiar.

During the first part of my stay at Java, my researches were useless; at Batavia and Samarang I learnt absolutely nothing; I was only told some absurd stories not worthy repetition, nearly similar to those which Foerch relates. At Sourabaya, the residence of the Sousouman, or emperor of Java, I was told that the upas existed in the province of Bagnia-vaugni, which I visited towards the end of July 1805. It was a Javan whom I took into my service, and who killed me some birds with arrows tipped with the upas antiar, who pointed out to me the tree which yields the poison, and taught me the preparation by making it in my presence. Observing that I attached some value to the knowledge, he told me, that there were, in the

mountains, some men who know of another species of upas which was still more violent; that, for his own part, he was ignorant respecting it, except that he was told it was fetched a long way off, and from places very difficult and dangerous of access. I immediately desired him to bring me one of the men, to whom I gave some money, with a promise of more if he would give me information. He told me that, in fact, he had some of the poison, but that the man who gave it to him had died long since, without telling him whence he got it; at the same time he offered to sell me some. I told him, that I did not want the upas, but only to discover the place it came from, and the plants which supplied it; that if he could and would have informed me, I should have given him the sum he asked, at the same time showing some piastres, which excited his cupidity. He then confessed that it was extracted from a creeper named tieute, which grows in the circumjacent woods, and was prepared from the rind of the root; that those who were in possession of the secret never made the preparation without concealing themselves in the depth of the woods. He then conducted me about a league and a half from the Dutch fort, into a place where I saw several of these creepers. They had neither flower nor fruit. I took many specimens of the plant, while the Javan uncovered and took up great pieces of the root. When I got home, he grated it carefully, paying great attention not to mix bits of wood with the rind, which he kept together, and part of which he put into a copper pot of water; when the rind had boiled some time, he poured off the decoction, and added a further portion of rind;

this he repeated three times, when he infused the extract to reduce itself to the consistency of treacle: when the preparation was on the point of being completed, he throw into it two onions, a clove of garlick, a good pinch of pepper, two pieces of the root of the *Kæmpheria galenga*, which the Malays call *konkior*; three small bits of ginger, in Malay *djiaha*, and a single grain of *capsicum fruticosum*, or pimento. This mixture being made, he left it a very short time on the fire; he cleaned it, turning his head away, to avoid inhaling the steam of the kettle: about three pounds of rind gave nearly four ounces of extract.

I instantly laid some on two pieces of bamboo, and, by the Javan's advice, let them dry before I used them: I then pricked a middling-sized fowl in the belly; it died in violent convulsions in the space of about a minute: another full-grown strong fowl died in the same way in two minutes, from a wound at the bottom of the leg: a very strong wild cock, pierced in the thigh with a small arrow touched with this upon, after it had been exposed to the air for three days, died in four minutes; two dogs, slightly pricked in the buttock with the same arrows, died in half an hour. I only particularize these experiments, which are uninteresting after those made by Messrs. Delille and Magendie with the same substance, to show that this poison lost nothing of its strength at the end of four years, the result of the experiments, in both cases, being nearly similar.

The repeated experiments, so carefully made by Delille and Magendie, which leave nothing to be sought for as to all the organs of the animal economy, show that the poison acts "by the

way of the absorbent and sanguiferous vessels, on the marrow of the spine," and, by its irritation, causes *tetanus*, *asphyxia*, and death.

The upas antiar is prepared from the poisonous gum which issues from a very large tree, from notches made in the trunk. This poison is prepared cold in an earthen vessel; with the poisonous gum are mixed grains of the capsicum fruticosum, pepper, garlick, roots of the *Kamphoria galanga*, *maranta Malaccensis*, by the Malays called *bangia*, and those of the *costus Arabicus*, named *koutia*: each of these substances is powdered and mixed slowly, except the corns of the capsicum fruticosum, which are rapidly thrown, one by one, to the bottom of the vessel, by means of a small wooden peg; each grain occasions a slight fermentation, and rises to the surface, whence it is taken and another thrown in, to the number of ten; the preparation is then finished.

The effect of the upas antiar on the animal economy is less immediate than that of the upas tieute, and its operation is different. A small water-hen, which I pricked in the thigh, with an arrow, recently prepared, died in three minutes: at the moment of its death it had a strong convulsion, and at the same time threw up the food which was in its stomach. An azurin, in Malay ponglor, a bird as large as a thrush, also pricked in the thigh, died in the same space of time, and with the same symptoms. The upas antiar occasioned every animal which was wounded strong evacuations both ways, generally frothy and tinged with green. M. Delille, to whom I sent a considerable quantity of this

poison, made a variety of experiments, the results of which were pretty nearly the same.

From these various observations, it may be inferred, that the upas antiar acts first as a purgative and emetic; it then presses on the brain, the functions of which it disturbs, and causes death, accompanied by tetanic convulsions. The ipo of Macassar acts in the same way; and, from the accounts given to M. Carrega, proceeds from a large tree, and is obtained by incision. This similarity of circumstances, and of climate, affords a reasonable supposition that it is the same as the upas antiar. The same reasoning applies to the ipo of Borneo, which is the juice of great creepers, and acts in the same way as the upas ticte, which it also resembles in its excessively bitter taste; I therefore think that this substance is the same, but the preparation is different. At Java this prepared poison resembles thick and very brown treacle, which is kept in small bamboo tubes, similar to what I brought. That of Borneo, on the contrary, is concrete, and is kept in palm-leaves; to give it this dry consistency, it seems to be mixed and beaten up with a kind of earth. I dissolved some ipo of Borneo in water; a sediment took place of a brown and brittle substance, which, after being washed in a great deal of water, and dried, retained little of its bitterness.

The arrows of the Javans differ from those of the inhabitants of Borneo. The head, instead of terminating with sharp iron, is shaped like a very fine long awl, so that it is very brittle, and remains fixed in the wound; and, as M. Delille has well observed, the smaller the wound the greater the danger; when the aperture is large,

It frequently occasions a considerable hemorrhage, and the blood, which flows abundantly, carries with it the poison, as fast as it dissolves, and weakens, or even destroys, its effect.

The Javans say that the remedy for this poison is sea-salt, taken in large quantities. From my own and M. Delille's experiments it appears that this remedy is of very little or no efficacy, and seems to me only to torment, without giving relief to the victim.

I have observed, and M. Delille confirms the observation, that the liquid poison, introduced into a wound, is less violent than when it has dried on the instrument which gives the wound. It appears that, in a fluid state, it mixes with the blood, and runs out with what escapes; which is not so in the other case, where absorption takes place, in proportion as the poison dissolves. In the serous cavities and digestive channels the absorption goes on very well, although the upas be extended by much water, or mixed, as a liquid, with the aliments.

The antiar is a monœcias tree, of a new species, which I shall call *antiaris toxicaria*; it is very large. I have always found it in fertile places, and, owing to such fertility, surrounded by a great number of vegetables, to which its proximity is in no respect detrimental. Its trunk is straight, with protuberances at its base, like those of the common canarium. Its rind is whitish and smooth; the wood white: the leaves fall before it flowers, and do not put forth again till after the fall of the male flowers, when the buds are impregnated; they are oval, coriaceous, generally curled; of a pale green colour, dry consistency, unpleasant to the touch, covered with

short rough hair. The leaves of very young antiars are different from those of the full-grown plant; they are about six inches long, almost sessile, shaped something like a spatula, a little indented at the edges, and not so rough as those of the old trees. The juice of this tree is very viscid and bitter; that which comes from the young branches is white, and from the trunk yellowish: it flows plentifully on a notch being cut in the bark.

The emanations from this juice, like those which come from the sumacs and euphorbias, or from the mancenillier of America, are dangerous, particularly to those the texture of whose skin, or whose constitutions are more disposed to absorb these emanations; while others are not at all affected by them, as the following circumstance proves.

The tree which furnished me with the specimens of the plant and opas which I brought home, was above a hundred feet high, and the base of its trunk about eighteen feet in circumference. A Javan, whom I employed to get me some branches of the tree in flower, was obliged to climb up and cut them. He had scarcely climbed twenty-five feet when he found himself so indisposed that he was forced to come down. He swelled, and was ill several days, experiencing vertigo, nausea, and vomiting, while another Javan, who went to the very top, and brought me exactly what I desired, was not in the least incommoded. Having afterwards felled one of the trees, which was four feet round, I walked in the midst of the broken branches, had my hands and face besmeared all over with the gum which issued from it, and felt

no inconvenience: it is true, I took the precaution of washing myself immediately. The approach to the antiar is, in no respect, noxious to animals; I have seen lizards and insects on its trunk, and birds perching on its boughs.

The antiar* belongs to the nettle family, and nearly approximates to the brosimum.

The tieute† is a new species; it is a very large orderer, which I found in fertile places. Like the antiar, it is noxious neither to animals nor to vegetables; it reaches to the tops of the highest trees. No juice runs from its stem. Its root strikes about two feet into the earth, and then extends several fathoms horizontally; the root is as thick as a man's arm, ligneous, and covered with a fine reddish brown rind, bitter to the palate. This bark furnishes the gum with which the upas is prepared; it does not run from it, but is obtained solely by ebullition. When the root is cut fresh, it emits a great quantity of tasteless, innoxious water. The wood is of a yellowish white, moderately hard, of a spongy appearance: its smell is not strong, but rather nauseous; the bark of the stem is

Antiaris toxicaria; arbor monoica.

Flores masculi, axillares, plures, super receptaculum commune impositi: receptaculum pileiforme, longe-pedunculatum, convexum, irregulare, subrus squamulatum squamulis imbricatis raris, supra squamosum squamis rectis, antheras subsessiles duo-loculares, distinguantibus et apice curvo obtegentibus.

Flores feminei solitarii axillares subsessiles; squamulae decem vel duodecim imbricatim circum positae, appresse calicem supplentes; germen unum; superium styli duo longi, divaricati; stigma duo acuta; semen unum, calice persistente, drupaceo tectum; drupa pruniformis, obliqua, vestigia squamularum evanida.

† Strychnos tieute; inermis; caule sarmentoso excelso; foliis ellipticis, apicibus acutis; cyrtis simplicibus incrassatis.

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reddish, that of the young sprouts green and smooth; the axillary branches are slender and very divergent; the leaves are opposite on a short petiole; they have three cavities, of which the two lateral ones do not extend quite to the top, are elliptical and sharp, full, smooth, and of a deep green; the very young leaves are reddish; the young boughs have tendrils in shape like fish hooks; these tendrils are few, opposite to the leaves, inflated towards the top, with a very little stipule at the base, which is perhaps merely the remnant of the leaf, of which this assumes the place.

Although M. Deille, who has made endless experiments on many kinds of vegetable and mineral poisons, has told me that he found none so violent as those extracted from the two plants, the subject of this memoir, the natives, and from them travellers, have gratified themselves with exaggerating their activity; but I think I can now assert that the different substances known in the Moluccas and Banda islands, by the names of *ipo* and *upas*, and perhaps too the poison used by the Philippine islands, all refer to

✓ The Javans who live where the *upas* is collected, rather ignore its powers; but at Brugia, where they say that the antians formerly yielded a more active poison than they do now, and that there still is at Bali a king or prince, whose state is an antian, the *upas* of which is so violent, that death is the consequence of respiring its emanations. Hughes writes to this petty king, who is also king of Karassam, to procure me this pretended poison; but my request was ineffectual.

† According to M. de Sainte-Croix, the inhabitants of the peninsula of Camarines in the island of Luzon employ a very active poison, which the uncivilized Indians supply the Spanish alcaldes with, for the defence of the coast against pirates. M.

these extracted from the strychnos tige and antheris toxicaria, and that the only difference consists in the mode of preparing it, which can in no instance augment their malignity to the pitch of producing the phenomenon, which some travellers pretend. I moreover am of opinion that the greater part of the preparations, which are adopted and transmitted by prejudice, are of no effect; the substances made use of for that purpose in Java, all pungent and aromatic, have never been supposed harmful, and the unprepared apas, with which I have made some experiments, seemed no less violent than the other.

After having described the two plants supposed to be the most noxious in Java, I shall mention one, which, among the inhabitants, has a contrary reputation.

This plant is a new species of the andira. It is very rare, and is found in the Tingar mountains in the district of Passourouang. The natives term it promo-djiva, which signifies giving strength to the soul. The Javans look upon the fruit of this plant, reduced to powder and mixed with food, as a preventive against a multitude of diseases, giving power to the stomach and arresting the effect of poisons. They also use it as a specific against the bite of venomous beasts; in this case they mix it with lemon juice, and apply it to the wound. The berries are bitter. I named this plant *Harsfieldia*, from Mr. Harsfield, an American physician and botanist, who is principally engaged, at Java, in the

de-Sainte-Croix has not seen this plant, which yields a potion killing with violent convulsions; he told me that the inhabitants keep the preparation secret.

investigating the vegetable productions of that island which may be of service in the medical art, in the number of which, according to the natives, this holds the first rank.

Each fruit of the *Andira Harsfieldii* commonly sells in the country for about two pence half penny to five pence, a large sum for the Javans, and which is a proof of their confidence in its virtue.

† *Experiments with the Upas Anjiar*, by B. C. Brodie, Esq. F. R. S.—Read at the Royal Society, 21st February 1811.

“Experiment 41.—About two grains of this poison, were made into a thin paste of water, and inserted into a wound in the thigh of a dog. Twelve minutes afterwards he became languid; at the end of fifteen minutes, the heart was found to beat very irregularly and with frequent intermissions; after this he had a slight rigor. At the end of twenty minutes, the heart beat very feebly and irregularly; he was languid, was sick, and vomited; but the respirations were as frequent and as full as under natural circumstances, and he was perfectly sensible. At the end of

Andira Harsfieldii: flores papilionacei; calix urceolatus, baccis gibbosus, limbus quinque-dentatus subaequalis; vexillum arctum, alis, aequale; carina duo petala; stamina decem didactyla; stamen superum liberum; antherae parvae; germen oblongum stipitatum; stylus unicus brevis; legumen siccum, non dehiscens, olive-forme nitidum violaceum; unum spermum semen, membranula, vestitum.

† *Philosophical Transactions*, Part I. 1811.—*Edit.*

‡ We are informed, that the island of Java produces two powerful vegetable poisons, to one of which the natives give the name of upas tieute, and to the other that of upas anjiar. I was supplied with a quantity of the latter through the kindness of Mr. Marsden, who had some of it in his possession.

twenty minutes, he suddenly fell on one side, and was apparently dead. I immediately opened into the thorax, and found the heart distended with blood in a very remarkable degree, and to have entirely ceased contracting. There was one distinct and full inspiration after I had begun making the incision into the thorax. The cavities of the left side of the heart contained scarlet blood; and those of the right side contained dark-coloured blood, as in the living animal."

"*Exp. 22.*—A small quantity of upas antiar, prepared as before, was inserted into a wound in the thigh of a young cat. She appeared languid in two minutes after the poison was inserted. The symptoms which took place did not essentially differ from those which occurred in the last experiment, except that there were some convulsive motions of the limbs."

"At eight minutes after the poison was inserted she lay on one side, motionless and insensible; the heart could not be felt; but the respiration had not entirely ceased. On opening into the thorax, I found the heart to have ceased contracting. It was much distended with blood, and the blood of the left cavities was of a scarlet colour. There were two full inspirations after the incision of the thorax was begun. On irritating the heart with the point of the scalpel, slight contractions took place in the fibres of the appendices of the auricles, but none in any other part."

"*Exp. 23.*—The experiment was repeated on a rabbit. The symptoms produced were similar to those in the last experiment, but the animal did not vomit, and the convulsive motions were in a less degree: he died eleven minutes after the

poison was inserted. On opening the chest, the heart was found to have entirely ceased contracting: it was much distended with blood, and the blood in the cavities of the left side was of a scarlet colour. On irritating the heart with the point of the scalpel, the ventricles contracted, but not sufficiently to restore the circulation.

"*Exp. 24.*—About a grain of the upas antiar was inserted into a wound in the side of a rabbit. He was affected with symptoms similar to those before described, and died in ten minutes after the poison was applied. On opening the thorax, immediately after death, the heart was found to have ceased contracting, and the blood in the cavities in the left side was of a scarlet colour."

"*Exp. 25.*—It appears from these experiments that the upas antiar, when inserted into a wound, produces death (as infusion of tobacco does when injected into the intestine), by rendering the heart insensible to the stimulus of the blood, and stopping its circulation. The heart beats feebly and regularly before either the functions of the mind or the respiration appear to be affected. Respiration is performed even after the circulation has ceased; and the left side of the heart is found, after death, to contain scarlet blood, which never can be the case where the cause of death is the cessation of the functions of the brain or lungs. The convulsions which occur when the circulation has nearly ceased probably arise from the diminution of the supply of blood to the brain, resembling those which take place in a person who is dying with hæmorrhage."

CHAPTER V.

Assassination of the King of Bantam.—Coronation of his Successor.—Sketch of the Kingdom.—Views of the Dutch on the Lampons Country.—Factories of the Islands of Barnea, Timor, and Byrion.

On the night of the 18th. or 19th. of March 1804, the king of Bantam was murdered in his bed by one of his grand-nephews, a young prince, son of him confined in Mester-Cornelis fort. This prince, to carry his intention into effect, disguised himself as a female, that he might obtain admission into his uncle's seraglio, and get to his bed-room. He concealed himself under the bed, and waited the return of the king, who was gone to dine on board the ship of the Dutch admiral Hartzing, whose division was moored in the road.

This event was said to be the result of a popular conspiracy against the king, who was pretended not to be the legitimate sovereign, being only brother to the king last deceased, as has been already stated.

The murderer, instead of saving himself, or running to attack whoever was near him or in his way, as the Malays generally do in their

rage, confessed his guilt, and delivered himself to the Dutch resident, saying, that he had just revenged the injustice done to his father, the legitimate sovereign of the country, who was their prisoner.

Agreeably to the law of retaliation, which prevails among the Indians of this part of Asia, the assassin was immediately put to death in the same way which he had himself adopted; and the high regency held an extraordinary sitting to proceed to the appointment of a successor.

M. Eyseldyck, counsellor of India, and then director-general, was fixed on by the high regency to elect and crown the new king in the Company's name. He set off on the 27th of March for Bantam, in a ship armed on purpose, accompanied by four of the first merchants as commissioners. He had also a guard of honour, consisting of a lieutenant, sergeant, two corporals, eighteen grenadiers of the 12th battalion, and as many Dutch: this guard was commanded by lieutenant-colonel, then major, Legrevisse. The counsellor, on his arrival at Bantam, assembled all the princes, patys, and mandores, before the people; addressed them on the duties they had to fulfil towards their sovereign, and announced the prince whom the high regency had appointed to rule over them. A large pair of scales was set up before the palace gate;

young girls brought fruit, flowers, and every kind of herb which the country produces, in baskets; placing them in one scale. The appointed prince being placed in the opposite scale, and having weighed down all these productions, which were to represent those of the earth, he was acknowledged and proclaimed king: the counsellor at the same time placing the crown upon his head and embracing him; all the princes, his brothers, and even his father, prostrated themselves at his feet, to evince their respect for him. The king then promised to be a faithful ally to the Company, and ratified the engagements of his predecessor, relative to assistance of what men might be needful in case of war, and to the delivery of all the productions of his territory, at the price and on the conditions which were established of old.

The ceremony took place under a discharge of the palace and fort guns, and was terminated by feasting, which continued fifteen days. During this time the king was installed, and examined into the situation of his kingdom. The new king made every one a present of money, from the counsellor down to the private soldier: this present was taken from the treasury.

These ceremonies of Bantam always prove fatal to those who are sent upon them, for the air is still more pestilential there than at Batavia; all

the grenadiers and European subalterns died either during their stay, or after their return; only two or three of the French and officers were saved. The secretary Schmidt likewise fell a victim to it. M. Eyseldyck, his wife who had followed him, and major Degrevise, together with the four merchants, all experienced putrid disorders, which brought them almost to the grave.

The kingdom of Bantam was formerly the greatest, and its sovereigns the most powerful, of the whole island of Java; but it has been much reduced since the Dutch have interrupted its communication with the other parts of Java, by taking possession of the kingdom of Jacatra. It includes, notwithstanding, a great extent of territory, from the river Taogutung, two leagues from Batavia, and which serves as its boundary, to the western extremity of the island. Its population is considerable, and is much increased by the Maduran deserters, slaves, Chinese bankrupts, and even murderers, who take refuge there; for, besides its proximity, they are attracted thither by the certainty of finding an asylum; because, the natives not being subjects of the Company, the country is privileged, and the Dutch police can neither pursue nor arrest any of those who fly to it, although the Gov-

is under the dominion of the high regency.

The capital, built wholly of bamboo, is situated on the sea shore, near the mouth of a great river, which empties itself into the bay. The king resides there in a kind of palace, built in the European style, within an old ruinous fort, with eighty pieces of brass cannon of all sizes, partly without carriages, and altogether unserviceable.

The Dutch, on the contrary, have, at the side of it, a fort in a very good state, which commands that of the king as well as the city.

They have a commandant, four artillery officers, and fifty Europeans, who encase without the city on account of its unhealthiness. The king of Bantam assumes the European costume on great public days; he has a scarlet or other coloured coat embroidered with gold, with boots, spurs, a hat, sword, and poniards. On other occasions he dresses in the Malay manner, but very rich, and always carries two poniards. The natives of his kingdom are generally distinguished from those of Java: the former have their hair loose, with a small cap, or narrow round hat without a brim; their eyes and features also appear more ferocious than those of the Javans.

The seraglio contains from three to four hundred women.

The kingdom produces an immense quantity of rice and pepper, with some small portion of tin and calin. From Bantam to Batavia, by land, is ninety miles.

The Lampons country in the island of Sumatra, though larger than the kingdom of Bantam, is dependent upon it. The king derived much more advantage from it a few years since, but the Lampons having risen and given shelter to some pirates, with whom they make common cause, his authority is almost at an end, and the calin-mines are not worked.

The Batavian government has long had in serious contemplation to establish a factory in the island of Sumatra, which is only separated from that of Java by the Straits of Sunda, and would open various lucrative branches of commerce; its camphor being the best which is known, and producing large quantities of benzoin, pepper, rice, and calin. Its attention was therefore directed to Lampons Bay, which is spacious, deep, with good anchorage, and situated at the entrance of the Straits of Sunda, near the southern point of the island, almost opposite to Bantam; but this bay being the resort of vast numbers of pirates who infest those coasts they were prevented forming an establishment

by the almost utter impossibility of rooting them out, or rather by the inadequate means employed to effect it. Armed ships were often sent to burn the villages of the pirates; but being confined to this object, they always returned when it was accomplished. The whole country is entirely a habitation for Indian vagabonds and thieves, and is, in a great measure, in a state of insurrection against its sovereign, the king of Bantam.

In the last expedition which the high regency fitted out against it, M. Brandels, an able officer, was sent to fix upon a favourable situation for a fort, barracks, and storehouses; but this ended, like the former, in burning a few huts, the Indians sheltering themselves in the interior; and the officer reported that he could discover no place suitable for such an establishment, having seen nothing but impenetrable marshes the whole length of the coast, and some distance up the country.

The Hollanders were not discouraged by the ill success of these endeavours.

The Batavian government, for the better accomplishment of its purpose, made it a matter of interest to the king of Bantam, who was afterwards assassinated, and who, on coming to his throne, engaged to supply government with a considerable quantity of rice and pepper at a

shamefully low price; which, being unable to deliver to the extent, as he was forced to collect the greater part from the Lampons, his richest possession, which their rebellion and the number of pirates prevented; he felt himself interested in supporting the regency. He consequently undertook to subject and reduce the rebels to obedience at any rate, provided the high regency would be at the expense of, and furnish him with, three hundred European troops. His proposal was accepted, and the three hundred men were sent, with major Legrevisse at their head. These troops repaired to Bantam, where they remained at the king's disposal, expecting that every thing was ready for their embarkation; but, in the interval, news having been brought to Batavia, by an American, that war had actually taken place, the government lost no time in recalling the troops, and the project was again deferred to a more favourable opportunity.

It is very clear, that if the Dutch obtained a respectable footing in the Lampons country, without fort, garrisoned by three or four hundred Europeans, some Maduran companies, and a resident, they might easily hold a communication with the sultan of Palembang, in like manner form alliances with the different kings and petty princes within the line which bounds the kingdom of Achem, whose sovereign is the most

powerful of the whole island; destroy, and ultimately, by degrees, annihilate the English factory at Bencoolen; by their alliances effect a balance of power against Achem, and secure nearly all the produce of the whole island of Sumatra, which is very great, both for fertility and extent.

The 30th May is the anniversary of the conquest of Jacatra and founding of Batavia. A salute of artillery from all the forts and batteries of the line of defence announces this fête in the morning. The governor-general and the whole council repair, in full dress, at seven o'clock, to the hall of audience in the castle. The edler-baili, president of the city magistracy, leaves them; takes a coat and black cloak; and, at the head of all the sheriffs, in similar costume, renews to the council, their oath of fidelity to the noble Company, high regency, and the Batavian republic; after which the governor delivers an appropriate speech, and they withdraw in the same order. The edler-baili then retires; his seat amidst his colleagues; and a grand council is held till one o'clock. In the evening the governor has a party extraordinary at his house; and thus the day concludes.

CHAPTER VI.

Palankang.—Balembouang.—Bagnonwangle Bay.
—Indian Prince and Dutch Commandant.

PALANKANG is a village a league and a half up the country, to the right of the mouth of Balembouang Bay. It is intersected by a small river, whose entrance is opposite to it. On the 13th February 1805, general Tombe and his company were visited by the Joudo-Nogoro, prime minister of the country. He came on horseback with his escort to Palankang, where he got into a canoe. Scarcely had he reached the side of the bay when the Malays did him homage, by seating themselves cross-legged on the ground behind him. His business was to announce the Dutch commandant, who arrived at three o'clock in a beautiful barge with an awning, on which the Dutch pendant was hoisted. They returned in the same style.

The landing at Balembouang is difficult, and the coast dangerous, particularly at the north of the river, where is a sand-bank. The commandant, a German, Baron Wikermann, had formerly been one of the guard of honour to the emperor of Mataram, when he married a Malay

lady, and on this, the eldest son's birth-day, he gave a great entertainment.

Extending at the bottom of a grand saloon, was a transparent curtain, for a Malay comedy, which opened with noisy music, disgusting to the ears of an European. The musicians all sat cross-legged; a dozen of them beat gongoms, a kind of copper, and very sonorous, cymbals, of different sizes for variety in sound. The director of the band played the principal instrument in use among the Indians; it is a two-stringed fiddle, the handle about a foot and a half long, and flat. The body is made of a very large, scarce, and dear cocoa-nut, which the Malay princes procure at an exorbitant price. This species is only found in the islands of Madura and Baly. The nut is fastened to the handle, almost at the end; the fiddle-stick is a bent *rotang*, and the strings of horse-hair. The instrument is placed perpendicularly on the ground, like a violoncello, and the sound is not unlike what is produced from that instrument when the bow is drawn over the strings behind the bridge. The musician sometimes stops to sing, which he does most wretchedly, and always in one tone.

The music played during breakfast, which consisted of tea, coffee, and fruit; the ladies afterwards withdrew to the saloon, where the music was, and, seating themselves on one side

on great mats spread on the ground, began playing cards.

At noon dinner was served, and as the company were of three very different nations, it was in the European, Chinese, and Malay style, so that each might choose. Toasts were drank in Bourdeaux wine, of which the commandant had received a few bottles as a present.

Tea followed, and betel was handed to the tomogon, to his ministers, the prime mandora of the Malay army, and the chief of the Chinese; card-playing and smoking then continued till nine o'clock, when supper was served. The next day the fête was repeated as from Madame Wiekermann, to whom the visitors paid their respects accordingly. After dinner these parties took a ride, in carriages, to a pepper and coffee plantation, which the commandant had first established on the India Company's account, in New Land, a mile from the village; and then on to an old plantation, named Socoradja; also under his direction, a league further up the country than the former.

During a few days stay here M. Tombé and his friends visited a prince, who is atalao high priest, and a chief of the Chinese. They were well received by both, statelshans and music being prepared on their entering the

palaces, where they took tea, coffee, and preserved fruits, and smoked pipes. These chiefs had probably been informed of the intended visits by Baron Wickenmann, as the company found that they were expected, by similar preparations being made at both places.

Bagonwangie is the only Dutch post on the eastern part of the island of Java; it is situated five leagues from the mouth of Balemboyang Bay, in the Straits of Baly, and seven from the coast; a small river, also named Balemboyang, runs through it. It has a little earth fort, lined with turf, surrounded by a ditch full of water, over which are two drawbridges. The garrison consists of—1st, a lieutenant, who has the command of and lives in the fort, where are three capital residences with out-offices, besides a guard-house—2d, a company of Madurans intermixed with about ten Europeans and some Sammanapp artillery; with a Dutch second-lieutenant and sergeant. Opposite to, and at the side of, the mouth of the river are a bank and several reefs; but there is no anchorage notwithstanding. Two pilots, who reside in the village, precede the ships which pass the Strait, to point out and to show the shoals, and to take in provisions and water.

The commandant has the management of two fine plantations of pepper and coffee, (as already mentioned) and an indigo manufactory adjoining. In the middle of the former is a large shed for depositing and drying the coffee and pepper. A rivulet passes through it, which has a sluice to distribute the water, by subterraneous channels, into two great basins, one of which, opposite the shed, is entirely of brick, and into gutters which water the roots of the pepper-trees. At third of the distance from each end of the principal avenue of this plantation are huts built of bamboo, and covered with coco-leaves, for those who have the care of it. A river runs on one side of the indigo-house, on which are several and other houses, also a building in which the Malays employed there, reside.

A league beyond, at Sincoradaja, are an extensive old brick-built house, hospital, and prison for the Malays. Immediately in front of the house is a very large stove of flat, well-baked, square tiles for drying coffee. So thick is the plantation, that the branches of the coffee-trees completely fill up the avenues to it, and are not easily put aside to pass through.

The commandant, Wickman, is also charged to keep up the friendly ties which subsist between the kings of Baly and the Company.

The Balyans who cross the Strait and come to Bagnanwangie, cannot be received until they are furnished with a passport, written on a badamier leaf.

This establishment is surrounded by a village of the same name, where the tomogon resides. It consists of thirty Chinese and forty Malay families. It is separated from Panarukan by a desert, thirty-five leagues across, very mountainous, and covered with thick woods, full of tigers, buffaloes, and leopards; and being also one of the most unhealthy of the whole island of Java, all the malecontents of Samarang and Surabaya, as well European officers as soldiers, are banished thither for five or six months, according to the degrees of their offences. All the Javan and Maduran criminals, condemned to the galleys, are also transported to it for life, to work in the new plantation and in that of Socoludaja.

The environs of the fort and village are surrounded by marshes, which frequently occasion putrid diseases among the few Europeans and natives who live there. The unhealthiness of this country, however, is mostly owing to a volcano, a league and a half within the western part of the isle of Baly, opposite to the establishment. This volcano frequently sends a shower of ashes which cover both the establishment and

its vicinity, as happened in 1604, and soon afterwards occasioned a great number of mortal diseases.

Before quitting this part, it should be observed that all the geographers, ancient and modern, err in placing a town of this name in the eastern part of Java; describing it as a city too, which, according to some, contains 10,000 inhabitants, carries on a considerable trade, and whither all the ships of the East resort.

Balembouang Bay, the entrance of which begins at Gounong-Ikan point, in the Strait of Baly, is entirely desert and full of thick woods down to the water's edge, where, at every step, may be seen tracks of the wild beasts, which haunt there in great numbers. In fact, in this extremity of the island, there is no establishment whatever, except the campong of Palankang, a league and a half inland, to the right on entering the bay: it is true that, forty or fifty years ago, the India Company had a battery and tent, round which was a small Malay and Chinese village; but that establishment, which was only intended for the refreshment of ships passing the Strait, and to keep up the amicable relations with the Balyans, for the slave-trade, has been abandoned; six European officers, who successively commanded them, having all died of the dropsy, from the unwholesome

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CHAPTER VII.

Catapang.—Caravan into the Interior of Java—Desert of Balembouang.—Panarakan.—Principalities of Besaki, Banger, Pasourouang and Bangell.—Reception by Javan Princes.

IRO-GOUNON, tomogon of Balembouang, ordered a hundred Malays to attend a caravan, of which M. Tombe formed a part, into the interior of Java; twenty-five as a personal escort, and seventy-five to carry the baggage. They were all armed with poignards, and one party also had lances of eighteen feet long, and another carbines, to protect them from the tigers, leopards, and, what were still more to be dreaded, on account of their ferociousness, wild buffaloes. Having three days' journey of desert to pass, they had, independently of their own horses, and those of the escort, fifteen others laden with provisions for the whole caravan.

On the 26th February 1805, it left Bagnou-wangle for the little village of Catapang, two leagues off, on the coast in Baly Strait. The road is very fine and level, through a large forest, in which were seen a great number of peacocks and apes; the latter jumping from tree to tree to catch the others on the wing.

Continuing along the coast for about an hour, the caravan halted at a spring, which flows from a rock, where every one refreshed himself. Previously to entering the desert, dispositions were made that the caravan might be always on the defensive. The party proceeded one by one, led by the first mandore, armed with a lance, which he carried horizontally over his horse's neck.

As, in these deserts, there can be no encampment at night, without being subject to be devoured by wild beasts, besides that the coldness of the night air in Java is mortal, particularly to Europeans, the governor, resident at Samarang, has built, about twelve leagues apart, a shed and a house for travellers; they are constructed of bamboos covered with cocoa-leaves, surrounded by hedges and ditches, and guarded by armed Malays, who constantly, and especially at night, keep up fires about and in the centre of the inclosure.

The caravan reached the first post, Bagnon-Matic New Death, so called because some natives and Europeans have been devoured there at three o'clock in the afternoon: here were some beds, mattresses and mats of rotang. The inlets to the inclosure were barricaded and great fires were lighted within and round it. The night passed quietly: some lowings only being heard, and several buffaloes coming to one of the en-

frances to drink at a rivulet which runs near. Four Malays armed with lances kept guard during the night at the entrance of the dwelling.

The road from Catapang to the post of Bag-nou-Matic, is merely a way known to the natives; even the trace of it is lost in many parts of the wood. This path is scarcely wide enough for one person, and is bordered on each side by very thick grass, nine or ten feet high, which adds to the danger of the journey, as the tigers often conceal themselves in it, and can make their attack when it is least looked for; different places were distinguishable where these animals had been. The path is always up or down hill, and the dead branches of trees crossing it make endless stoppages: it also crosses several small rivers, the points of rocks in many parts of which render the fords extremely rugged.

On the 24th the caravan crossed a rapid river, and after going up the side of it for two hours, halted. Here Joudo-Nogoro's colleague, Mas-soula-Adilaga, who accompanied the caravan, dismounted his horse to purify himself, which he did by dipping his head in the water three times, notwithstanding the danger of stopping; but his religion prescribed it, and he was surrounded by his escort.

At two in the afternoon the caravan arrived at the second post, Sombourouan, which is also

guarded by Malays: Massoura-Adijlaga has built several houses here, for himself and his wives, as he sometimes spends a fortnight or month together at it. He has a flock of goats, herds of deer, and much poultry. The road was nearly the same as before, and still in the forest.

The baggage, it should be observed, generally sets out before daybreak. On the 25th the caravan followed it, as usual, about an hour after. Massoura-Adijlaga informed the party that he should take his leave at the river of Calie-Ticos, Rats River, which is at the extremity, and on the frontier of the kingdom of Balemboang, as he was not to go further. It arrived there at ten o'clock in the morning. This river, the water of which is whitish and unwholesome, is remarkable for its extraordinary rapidity. It is wide, and shut up between two very steep mountains. On the crest of the mountain, on the left bank, near the ford, is a small hamlet inhabited by Malays, who, apprized of the caravan, and having perceived it at a distance, came into the water up to their waists, and guided the horses to facilitate their passage. These wretched Indians, dwelling in the midst of tigers and leopards, acquitted themselves of the duty of hospitality on this occasion; they had dressed some maize in the ear, spread it on bamboo mats at the river side, and set it before the company as the best they had.

apologizing that, being poor orang-goumon, mountaineers, they had nothing else to give. They partook of this breakfast, and added to it some roasted fowls, which the minister brought from Sonbourouarou. The company drank some water preserved and carried in bamboos, mixing with it a little gin, which remained of two flasks which the commandant of Bagnouwangie gave the mandares for the purpose, and who carried them suspended in large cocoanut-shells.

The caravan continued its route, having taken leave of the minister, and, an hour afterwards, crossed a river, the sides of which are very dangerous from the tigers of the environs, which often go there, five or six together, to quench their thirst. Several extremely fierce tiger-cats were seen skipping about, which went off as it approached them. There were also many apes, two of which, from their size, might be orang-outangs, wild men of the woods.

At length, at three in the afternoon, the caravan got out of the desert, and entered an immense plain, dotted with thickets and rice-fields, forming a fine contrast to the preceding solitary gloom.

Leaving a village on the right, at five o'clock the party arrived at Panaroukan, the capital of the ancient kingdom of that name, of which a rich Chinese is the chief. He attended, and excellent beds were made ready in chambers.

He occupies a very large house built of wood, the front of which resembles that of a theatre. He immediately ordered tea and preserved fruit to be served. The arrival was no sooner known, than the patty, chief of the Malays, paid his visit.

At seven o'clock the company were most agreeably surprised with a grand supper, wholly in the European style, and in so great profusion, that they at first thought other guests were expected. The only deficiency was wine, for which was substituted gin and water.

Being invited to make some stay with the host, they consented, and the more readily, on M. Tombe's part, as he had learnt that there was a small fort in this country, occupied by a dozen European invalids, commanded by a sergeant. The escort, in consequence of the intended stay, returned to Bagnouwangie, and a new one of a similar number of Malays and horses was ordered to replace it the next day.

Soon after the arrival of the caravan, one of the invalids introduced himself. He was a Frenchman, originally from Amiens, sixty-five years of age, and had been thirty years in the Company's service. M. Tombe told him his wish to see the fort, where he announced him, and he went there next morning with M. Jaussaud. The sergeant-commandant is eighty years old, though,

he did not seem sixty, and the youngest of the detachment is fifty-five.

The fort is unimportant; it is square, built with palisades and planks, which are falling down from age; mounts four two-pounders, and is surrounded by a wide ditch full of water. It has two entrances, with a good drawbridge—the principal entrance fronts the coast. It stands on a marshy plain, three quarters of a mile from the coast. The Dutch flag is planted opposite the fort.

Within it is a small barrack-house, the rooms of which are tolerably comfortable. The sergeant's apartments are at the entrance, and isolated. They consist of three compartments and a kitchen on the side of the guardhouse. These old soldiers, although their pay is but moderate, live tolerably well, and make no complaints, as provisions are cheap, and their food consists principally of fish, poultry, and rice, with which the vicinity abounds.

Panaroukan is situated in the Strait of Madura, near Cape Sandanna, upon a river which empties itself by several branches into the sea: neither of them is navigable even for canoes, except in great floods. It is said that there is a passage for coasting vessels, in the midst of the reefs which line the coast, and which gave rise to the fort, which it has long been in agitation to rebuild of

stone, as it, at the same time, serves as a check on the natives and Chinese in the event of an insurrection. From this fort, when the weather is clear, can be seen Sammanapp, and the south-eastern island. It is a considerable village, inhabited by one third Chinese and two thirds Malays; and either nation has its own temple, priests, and bonzes.

On the 27th, the escort and horses being ready, the party set off from Panaroukan for Besouki, another Malay principality, where they arrived in the afternoon. The distance is about eleven leagues of extremely bad road, and continually in the woods to within a gun-shot of the place. At noon they found themselves in an immense plain of rice, interspersed with thickets, exhibiting a delightfully picturesque view. The approaches to Besouki are very beautiful, on account of their variety of pleasant scenery. The whole plain was then animated by a multitude of Javans, male and female, employed in the plantations and other work which the rice requires.

Besouki is a very large village, about three leagues from the coast. The mandores conducted the party to the tomogon's palace, but he was from home. His people asked them to walk in and wait. The paty, chief of this camping, came soon after to inform them that the tomogon was gone to visit the prince of Sam-

manapp, his father-in-law, and that he would not return till five o'clock in the evening. He then led them to his own house, where he showed every attention, immediately serving up roasted fowls, excellent broth, curry-fish, rice, tea, fruits, and sweetmeats. At five o'clock they were apprised of the return of the prince, to whom they were immediately conducted, and presented by the party. The tomogon gave them a civil reception under a shed opposite his palace, in which they had tea and preserved fruits. Mats were laid on the ground, at the side and without, for the party and his suite, who were served with betel.

The prince is from forty to forty-five years of age, a native of China, and never had but one wife, with whom he still lives, although polygamy is customary with the Mahometans: he has no children. He is reputed, by the Dutch of Java, a well-informed man, of some knowledge in physics and mathematics. His grandfather, a Chinese chief, having put himself at the head of a party of his own nation and the natives, in a war which one of the emperors of Mataram had to sustain against several neighbouring kings, and having obtained great successes, that emperor, in return, promoted him to the dignity of tomogon upon condition that

he should abjure his religion ; which he did, that his children might succeed him.

His dress consists of nankeen trowsers, in the French style, with yellow slippers, which forms a singular contrast to his moustaches, turban, and Malay jacket. The company took leave of him to visit the mosques and tombs of his ancestors.

Besouki is a considerable village, intersected, in various parts, by a small river. The tomogon's palace is built, in the European manner, of white stones: in front is a large court with a wooden gate. He appeared to be more reserved than the others towards his subjects who were about him.

The environs of this canton abound in rice ; and game is very common, owing to the quantity of thickets which cover the plain.

On the 28th the party set off, at six o'clock in the morning, with a new escort and fresh horses. As they had a long distance to go, the party of Besouki sent forward, over-night, to a petty chief of a village through which they must pass, some poultry, eggs, and rice, with an order to have them ready for their arrival. The road is in many places bad : it crosses several rice-fields, some small rivers, and an inconsiderable wood.

The village where they dined is unimportant, and a brook runs across it.

They reached the tomogon's of Banger in the evening, and were most cordially received. The party immediately paid them a visit, and took tea with them, and doted after it. There were only three European beds in the tomogon's palace.

This young prince, being curious in regard to foreign articles, wished to see the form of the officers' trunks. After having closely examined them, perceiving that he had touched two cases made of pig-skin, on which some of the bristles yet remained (that animal is detested by these people, who are all Mahometans), instantly called for a basin of perfumes and aromatics, and washed his hands to purify himself.

His disposition seemed very gentle, and his subjects appeared greatly attached to him.

The table was elegantly set out, though the provisions were all dressed in the Malay fashion; it was spread with fine linen and beautiful silver plate, and was lighted by four large flambeaux in candlesticks of massy silver. The tomogon did the honours, and was surrounded by thirty Malays seated on the ground, except the mandore who waited. Excellent Bourdeaux wine was set before the company, and they drank several toasts with three, the Malays all joining in *galla hadza*. Canals were not only, although it was the middle of summer, for, in

the latitude and longitude of Java, day and night are nearly equal throughout the year. At six or half past six in the morning day begins, and ends at the same hour in the evening; there is neither twilight nor dawn; at least they are not perceptible. The tomogon himself showed them to their rooms, where they had capital beds, beautiful diners, and very fine mosquito-nets, ornamented with fringe, and almost new. Several Malays slept on mats under the bedsteads, and at the doors of the rooms, to be ready to give assistance, were it requisite, in the night.

The prince was preparing a grand entertainment for his father, who was expected the next morning: he was seventy years old, and, on account of his age, had recently abdicated in his son's favour, and retired to Surabaye.

On the last of March the party began their journey, after having breakfasted: every thing was in readiness for the old man's reception, and a rich carriage, drawn by two fine horses, went to meet him.

It is only nine leagues from Passourouang, and good travelling for the horses. The road, which is large and old, is in the middle of rice-fields, with some hills easy of ascent and well cultivated. The country from Besouki is most delightful. The vicinity of the villages presents picturesque views, from the feet of the high

mountains, in the interior, to the sea. The plains are strewed with thickets, which seem as though planted expressly for their ornament, to render the view more fascinating; and a multitude of Malay men and women working at the ground, give life to the enchanting picture.

The escort reached Passourouang at noon, and was well received by the Dutch commandant Hesselaar, a captain of foot. He was many years lieutenant in the European cavalry, which acts as guard of honour to the emperor of Solo; and the appointment of Passourouang was given him to retire to. He has with him two officers, some subalterns and European soldiers, and some companies of Malays, to guard a small fort of masonry, rather intended against the natives, in case of revolt, than against an external foe. He also has the management of several considerable plantations of coffee and pepper belonging to the Company, and which are in the environs; likewise the direction of a yard for building the coasting-vessels necessary for the transport of those productions. The hill, and a mountain two leagues inland, are cultivated, almost to the summit, with all kinds of European garden-stuff, which never degenerate, whether from the situation or from the soil, in which they grow, and which supply a great part of the civil and military

of Passourouang is the capital of a very large

tary administrations of Sarabaye, whose environs produce little in this way.

This appointment is very lucrative to M. Hetselaar, being estimated to bring in 15,000 rix-dollars a year. His household consists of thirty Malay slaves, from Baly and Macassar, ten of whom are musicians; a Chinese belonging to the chief has taught them music, having learnt it himself from a German in the Company's service, who lived many years at Passourouang. He also has four elegantly gilt carriages, and a one-horse chaise, with twenty fine horses richly caparisoned. His wife is a native, by whom he has several children. He always keeps a most splendid table.

On the morrow he introduced the party to the prince, with whom they took tea, smoked, and ate some preserved fruits: the prince afterwards showed them, in one of his yards, two immense tigers, in an inclosure of thick palisades. Three had been taken in traps by several of his subjects, but one of them died a few days before.

The principality of Passourouang is one of those, in Java, where these animals are common.

They next visited the Chinese campong, which is very considerable, this people forming a third of the population of the place: they also visited their chief, who set before them pipes and tea.

Passourouang is the capital of a very large

principality; it is crossed by a wide river, which is navigable some leagues up the country for coasting-vessels, with which it is always covered. A fine wooden bridge communicates from one side to the other: the commandant's house backs the fort on the right bank facing the bridge. This is a very extensive and commodious residence, with many offices; the boat-yard is near the mouth of the river, which falls into the sea a short way beyond.

M. Gauffe, surgeon-major of the 12th French battalion, was there, but had gone into the interior to propagate vaccination among the natives, and to give them the advantage of that inestimable discovery. On the 3d March they proceeded to Bangell, only seven leagues off. The road is wide and excellent, over a plain, cultivated with rice and maize: at some distance right and left are several villages, embosomed in papaya and bananas, and surrounded by cocoas-trees. The prince of Bangell is almost seventy years old; he received them with particular kindness, and the usual ceremony. He abstains from wine, as he unites the rank of high priest with that of tomogon. This old prince is the elder brother of the prince of Besouki, and consequently originally from China. He speaks all the oriental languages, particularly those of Madaga and Chibab, and has some ideas of European geogra-

phy: he conversed like one who had travelled, and more particularly in Italy, and was at no loss how to make use of a map of Europe, which was laid before him.

His eldest son, a fine man, almost white, speaks Dutch fluently, and is well acquainted with civil architecture. He said that one of his legitimate wives was big of her sixty-first child, of which twenty-nine were dead, and of the remaining thirty-one, twelve were at Besonki, with his brother, who took charge of their education.

The facility of procuring women throughout Java is rather singular. No sooner were the gentlemen in bed, than a Malay came to offer them; and it is the more remarkable, as the character of the people inclines to ferocity. The sex are slaves, and the men jealous in the extreme. It is also true that these sort of females, called rouguins, are free girls, or belong to unfortunate families, who thus give them up on the demand of the prince, to whom they refuse nothing, in the hope of obtaining favour and attention in return.

The next day the caravan commenced the first day's journey to Surabaye, the principal Dutch settlement in the Strait of Madura. The company were conducted in the tomogon's carriages to Southearté, the frontier town of his principality, five leagues off, where their horses and es-

cort waited for them with provisions, addressed to the chief, with whom they breakfasted. The road from Bangell to Soutacarie is wide, even, and very fine; the country is well cultivated in rice and maize, and full of large and populous villages.

After leaving Soutacarie they were still three leagues from their first destination. They crossed the river of Bagiéram, over a large wooden bridge, leaving, on the left, a chain of low hills of easy ascent. They kept along the side of the river up to Surabaye: it is very wide, with several little islands, which, combining with the charmingly varied country round Surabaye, render the approach to it extremely fascinating. A league on this side of it, on the right, and close to the river, is a very extensive palace named Simpang, which one of the Dutch governors had built of brick: it now belongs to the chief of the Chinese, but is occupied by the present governor, who is his tenant, and makes it his residence.

CHAPTER VIII.

*Opasses. — Surabaya. — Environs. — Gressec. —
Entertainments by the Tomogon.*

OPASSES are Maduran or Sammanapp soldiers always in waiting on the European officers, to whom they are at the same time servants. These Indians are naturally brave and intelligent.

The Dutch governor of Surabaya is subordinate to that of Java. The principality is governed by two tomogons, one of whom is allied to the emperor of Solo, better known as emperor of Mataram. The garrison consists of major Franquemont, commandant of all the European and Indian troops; an adjutant, one hundred Europeans, including a company of the old Wurtemberg regiment; six companies of Maduran infantry and two of the Maduran artillery, under the command of European officers, or officers born in the settlement. Here is a military hospital for one hundred and fifty sick.

The capital of the settlement is the dépôt for the recruits, with which the princes of Madura and Sammanapp are obliged to furnish the Company.

Surabaya is a small town not mentioned in any

geography, although it is an establishment of some importance and very healthy. It is crossed by the river of Calimas, not far from that of Bagieran, which falls into it a little higher. The environs and their banks are full of villages inhabited by two thirds Malay and the remainder Chinese.

The troops are quartered in a brick fort, containing a small arsenal, on the right bank of the river. The hospital is on the same side, without, and near the town.

The government and all the officers dwell mostly on this side: on the opposite bank are the principal Malay and Chinese campong, to which there is a communication by two large wooden bridges. Two moles are just completed at its mouth, with batteries, independently of those, previously there, to defend the entrance.

The river is navigable for all the country coasters, of which it is always full. There are several small yards where they are built to draw ten and twelve feet water; they are used by the princes of Borneo and Baly; likewise others for transporting the produce of the neighbourhood, which is only rice.

The ships destined for the Philippines and for China generally touch at Surabaja, especially in the season of the north-westers; they there find every possible refreshment, except garden-stuff,

which the Europeans are obliged to procure from the principality of Passourouang. Good native sailors may also be had there, but it must be under an engagement to bring them back to Java.

The mountains, in the vicinity, contain a tolerably hard stone, in colour and veins exactly like box-wood. The natives work it very tastefully, by a wheel, into candlesticks, plates, and goblets. They also manufacture many little articles, such as combs, brushes, &c. of the buffalo's horn.

A league and a half from Surabaye, upon a hill which runs along the left bank of the river Bagieran, is a saltpetre-house. This factory might have been an important establishment, of great utility, had it been kept up, on account of the quantity of saltpetre-earth in the vicinity, which is produced from the dung of a number of bats, with which the country abounds; but it is given up, and was lately sold to a Chinese for the small sum of six hundred rixdollars, although it cost at least fifteen thousand. This seems the more inexplicable, as an European officer has been sent to look for saltpetre at Byman, near Sombawa island. Some say it was owing to private pique of the council to Baron Ogendorff, who originated the saltpetre-house. The rural walks about Surabaye are very pleasant, and so numerous, that they may be varied every day for a month,

without going the same twice. They are all wide enough for a carriage, and are shaded by thickets and close hedges of bamboo, banana, and other very high shrubs, which keep off the heat of the sun. Within the circumference of twelve miles is an infinity of *campongs*, so close to each other that they appear to make one city: another proof of the salubrity and fertility of the country. One of the petty kings of the isle of Baly paid a visit to this place on his return from Batavia, whither he had been on behalf of the great king of that island, to solicit the Company's protection and alliance, that he might be enabled to put an end to the devastating scourge of intestine war, which has long prevailed among the kings and princes of his country. His suite consisted of one hundred men, armed with their poignards and *klébans*. One carried his parasol, another his betel-box, and a third his square silk cap, embroidered with gold. While he remained with the commandant, these three Malays sat cross-legged on the ground behind his state-chair. He had two other Malays with him, probably his ministers, or nobles, as they were seated, on chairs, by his side.

The commandant engaged M. Tombe and his friends on a water-party to M. Van-Harsen's, resident of Gressec, whither they went in a beautiful large barge belonging to the governor,

covered like the passage-boats of Holland; the cabin occupied its whole length, except that, at either end, was space left for the master, some rowers, and a small sail to hoist when the weather permitted. The cabin was very well furnished; the seats, which went all round, were covered with good cushions: a table up the middle, with small lockers for provisions, and particularly for pipes; and lastly, latticed casements with silk curtains, completed the floating saloon.

From Surabaya to Gressec by sea, is reckoned three leagues, which was performed in five hours, against wind and tide. The coast of Java, from the mouth of the Surabaya river, to Gressec, forms a large angle, with an island in the middle. A bank of sand and mud which runs along the coast, and is almost always visible, has rendered necessary a wooden mole, built on piles opposite the fort: it is six hundred feet in length: the boats are fastened to it, and the pier is ascended by a wooden ladder. Having gained the other extremity, we traverse a large room with neither door nor window over the abutment, probably intended for a guard-house, and, descending five steps, arrive at Gressec.

Gressec, the capital of an ancient Javan kingdom, is now merely a small town divided between the natives and the Chinese. The latter,

here, as every where else, have their own *shintou*, *pong*, temple, and *bonzes*.

The small fort is built of stones; within it is a barrack for the guards who have the care of it.

The principal street is along the coast; it consists of four or five large houses of beach stones, inhabited by the resident, Dutch admiral, book-keeper, some commissioners, and the Company's surgeon. The street is wide, and shaded by several rows of tall thick trees, opposite the houses, which makes the entrance rural and pleasant. At the end of, and behind the street are Malay and Chinese campongs, also the grand square, in which are the palaces of the two ruling *tontogons*. There is neither river nor rivulet at *Gressee*; water for drinking is fetched from two springs, half a league off, near the coast, or it is brought from *Surabaya*. The natives frequently use brackish water, and such as they catch from the rains. Notwithstanding the difficulty of procuring good water, and in spite of the marshes and stagnant pools which lie round the Malay and Chinese campongs, and the mud-bank on the coast, which, being dry at low water, continually exhales intolerable vapours, the air of the place is very wholesome: sick persons are seldom met with, and it is esteemed the most salubrious of all *Java*; which would induce one to think that the unhealthiness of the kingdom

of Bantam, Jacatra, and Balembouang, is rather owing to the nature of the soil than to the marshes. The currents, however, in this strait, which is very narrow, are so strong, that filth of whatever kind cannot remain long.

A short league further, at the foot of the hills on which Gressec stands, is a saltpetre-house in full work, established, by the Company, under the direction of the resident.

The administration of the country consists of a resident, and some Malay companies commanded by natives. A Dutch sergeant of the garrison of Surabaye commands them in chief, with the title of military commandant. To give the latter some consequence among the natives, he is often, particularly when there are any officers at Surabaye, invited to the resident's table. There are, also, some inferior officers and a surgeon. Lastly, two tomogons govern the natives. The present princes are brothers, their father having long since ceded half the principality to his eldest son, and subsequently, owing to his great age, finally abdicated in favour of the youngest of seven sons. This prince was major of all the Malay troops, he had been promoted to that rank in preference to his next brother, to whom the rank fell, as being more capable of doing honour to the situation.

Returning from the resident to the younger tomogon, whose name is Ardyo adi Nogoro the party were agreeably surprised, on entering the first court of his palace, to hear noisy music and a Malay play. The theatre was in a shed opposite his principal residence, and was nothing more than a transparent curtain of seven or eight feet high, and eighteen or twenty feet long, stretched on a frame, and kept perpendicular by two feet fixed to each end. The manager was behind this screen, and gave action to card figures of different kinds, representing cavalry, infantry, kings and princes at war. It was exactly like what we term Chinese shades. The Malay director at the same time sung of the different fights and victories of the ancestors of the emperor and other princes of the country, to the sound of a number of kettle-drums and gongoms of different sizes.

The two-stringed fiddle, already described, was the principal instrument, and played by the leader of the band. The musicians* were placed on one side of the theatre; on the other were the tomogon's six brothers, seated respectfully on chairs. In front, at some distance from

* All the Indians, and consequently their musicians, seem to have some ideas of the different sounds of music. On the approach of the party to the palace the musicians played an adagio; when they saw them, an allegro.

the screen, state-chairs were placed for the Europeans and the tomogon, who sate in the middle. In the long square which the company formed, were thirty rouguins, fourteen to sixteen years old, ornamented with garlands of flowers. These girls danced round without touching each other, and turned very gracefully on one foot; at the same time singing, in a languishing tone, the victories and praises of the emperors. They now and then sate down in a groupe on the ground to rest. In one of the angles outside the shed were two tables set out with Bourdeaux wine, gin, liquors, and pipes, and it is customary to drink every instant.

No sooner were the gentlemen seated than Ardjo adi Nogoro opened the ball by a kind of minuet with two of the rouguins; after which, having placed them close together, he threw an handkerchief round their waist, and brought them for M. Tombe to do the same, which, in compliance with their customs, he did, and in the same way passed them to the next, and so through all the European visitors.

While the handkerchief was round the two girls, and before dancing commenced, a mandore brought two glasses of gin on a silver dish, one for the dancer and one for the tomogon; it was no sooner taken hold of, than the whole

assembly and spectators huzzaed three times, after which the dancer did the same, and drank.

At the opening of the fête the tomogon selected, from the groupe of young girls, the one whom he thought prettiest, brought her to M. Tombe, placed her on his knees, and left her wholly at his disposal : he did the same to the other five of the company. They were, however, at liberty to change them if they were not to their taste; and when they were tired of having them on their knees, they sate at their feet.

This entertainment continued till half past five in the morning; at six they breakfasted, and at eleven arrived at Surabaye.

CHAPTER IX.

Sidaijo.—Strait of Madura.—Rembang.—Japara.—Javanna.—Samarang—Its Line of Defence.—Tagal.—Tcheribon.

SIDAIJO is a pretty village, which appears to great advantage from the mouth of the channel of the Strait of Madura, across Panka Point. On this point is always a military guard of three or four Europeans and some Madurans, sent by the resident of Gressec to protect the Dutch flag, and a small battery which is there. M. Loriaux, the engineer at Surabaye, in his plan for the defence of this part of the island of Java, has seen the importance of this post, and of the village of Sidaijo, where is a fine road leading behind Gressec and Surabaye. He consequently has erected a much more considerable work, to which a company of Madurans, commanded by European officers and subalterns, has been added for the defence of the landing-place.

At Panka Point are always Javan and European pilots, who, as soon as they discover vessels standing for the channel, go before to pilot them to Gressec or Surabaye. The master of the pilot-boat always has an order, from the resident at

Groasee, for the captains to give the name of their ship, their own name, what nation they are of, whence they come, and whither they are going. This declaration must be made, and signed by the captain or one of his officers; the pilot then stays on board, and the master resumes his post. The same custom occurs at the port of Ancore, in the Strait of Sunda, and at Bagnouwangie, in the Strait of Balu. Refreshments may be procured at the same time; for the master and Malay rowers generally avail themselves of the opportunity to supply the sailors and passengers, at very low prices, with fish, poultry, eggs, garden-stuff, and fruit.

The channel of the Strait of Madura, where it narrows, is only eighty-three fathoms wide; its entrance is designated by buoys. Although, at the beginning, there are only three, three and a half, and four fathoms water, the largest men of war can pass it; the bottom being merely mud, which is easily worked through, without the least danger, in the lightest breeze, and by the force of the currents.

After leaving this Strait and doubling Pankat Point, is seen Rembang, a small settlement on the northern coast, in a spacious hollow; then nearing and doubling Japara Point, pass in front of Javanna, another Dutch settlement, where ships moor somewhat at large; this settle-

ment, and that of Japan, being open roads, and the coast not altogether free from danger to those not well acquainted with it. The residents at these places are commissioned to see the engagements of the princes with the Company fulfilled, by causing the rice, sugar, and coffee, which the country produces, to be deposited in the magazines, until the ships come to take them to the general magazines at Samarang.

: Samarang, only about sixty miles distant from the residence of the emperor of Samarang, and one hundred and five from that of the sultan of Joueki, the two most powerful princes in the island, is rather a pretty town, on the northern coast of Java; it is situated about seventy-two miles west of Surabaya, and ninety east of Tche-ribon; intersected by the Great River, so called because it is the largest in the vicinity.

: It is a free road: ships which draw four and five fathoms cannot anchor nearer than a league and a half from shore; merchant-vessels which draw two fathoms, and two and a half, may approach within about a league. At the mouth of the Great River is a shoal, but it is marked by buoys.

: A short mile east of the mouth of the Great River, is that of the river Caligawa; they are both navigable a good way up the country for small boats; of which that of Caligawa is always

full, because it runs through the large village of Torabaya, and the Javan and Chinese campongs, where all the small trade of the neighbourhood is carried on. They both take their rise in the mountains of the empire of Mataram.

The houses occupied by the Europeans are, in a great measure, built of small stones. The air is very healthy; and, notwithstanding the great heat, one may walk out at any hour of the day, without being liable to inconvenience from it.

The authority of the governor of Java, who resides there, extends from Tcherihon, exclusively, to the easternmost point of the island in the Strait of Baly. He is appointed by the high regency, and is subordinate to the governor-general of Batavia.

This establishment is very important to the Dutch. All the communications of the two empires of Mataram and Joucki, as well as the other kingdoms and principalities, bear upon it; wherefore it is the general depôt of all the produce of Java in rice, sugar, coffee, and pepper. The greater number of the vessels which fill the magazine of Batavia touch here.

On a steep rock, three quarters of a mile behind Bodijon, is seen, from a bamboo observatory, all the neighbouring coast, mountains, and ravines. On the same height, a short distance

from the observatory, are several tombs of the Javan princes, surrounded by walls of small stones.

Observations on the Line of Defence of Samarang.

a. The line determined on for the defence of this important port, extends from the river Tawang-Frassie to that of Clayrang. The intermediate parts of the two extremities of this line are naturally protected by banks, which prevent all approach to them, and by impenetrable morasses, which do away every hope and possibility of turning the centre-works, and penetrating into the interior.

The part which forms the centre, and which is intrenched, commences at the Great River, and reaches to the mouth of the Caligawa, an extent of nine thousand six hundred feet. Many works have been constructed along this part of the coast, and at the mouth of the two rivers, but time has shown that the greater part of the positions were wrong. These works were thrown too forward, and were not substantial enough to resist the waves which continually break against them; one part has been overwhelmed, and the other sunk down, and was swallowed up by the sea.

b. To remedy this, and to put the coast into as respectable a state as the nature of the ground

would permit, the governor, Engelhart, has built,

At the mouth of the Great River, on the left bank, the angular fortification, called the *Nieuw-west-batterie*, which, with the old redoubt, called the *Oost-batterie*, which has been repaired, and is on the opposite bank, seems an adequate defence for the mouth and entrance. Four guns, placed on the platform of a destroyed demi-bastion on the bank of the river, rather behind the fortification, would not be unserviceable, as they would enfilade the mouth of the river and sweep the great bank opposite, over which all boats can pass at high water; but it would be prudent to construct a parapet to cover the tannouncers attached to those guns.

A circular redoubt, called the *Goedeverwaring*, constructed at five hundred and forty feet from the coast, which sweeps the intermediate plain, defends the grand communication, parallel to it, and flanks the left part of the work, which forms the centre of the front of the defence. It would be more effectual, if a little wider. The face should be prolonged twenty-four feet at the side of the river, to flank the *Nieuw-west-batterie*, and better the gorge of the redoubt called the *Oost-batterie*, in case the enemy should succeed in getting possession of this second work, and wish to establish himself

there. It would also be indispensable to destroy the demi-bastion which closes this gorge on the side of the plain; for there can be no doubt that, if an enemy got possession of it, he would be protected by the same demi-bastion, which he would raise with the earth in front of the works, and would then be sheltered from the fire of the circular redoubt, and might batter the communications on the plain.

The centre is defended by a work called the *Nieuw-angelegte Gedette-van*, a fortification looked upon, by the governor and principal military officers, as the citadel and bulwark of the establishment, where should be the central point collecting the troops, the post of reserve, and depôt of provisions and stores, in case of any attack. But this work, which is seven hundred and eighty feet in front, is far from possessing all the advantage ascribed to it, although its fire seems pretty well calculated for the defence of the coast, the grand communication at the back, and the length which it occupies. It is surrounded by two branches of the *Caimans River*; the left flank is lengthened to cover and enfilade the interior, which is seen. It also defends the *Redan-coast* of the old line, on which it is proposed to mount some field-pieces.

A second circular redoubt, called *Goede-Trouwe*, *Good Hope*, is erected on the plain,

between the work above mentioned, and those on the river Caligawa, at nearly the same distance from the coast as the former. This redoubt completely flanks the centre work, and Zeemans-batterie, Mariners' battery, defends the communication, and would prevent the enemy from establishing himself in the old battery Poulus, in case he succeeded in making a landing on this front; but it also might be somewhat widened: on one side the fire would be more extensive; on the other it would have the advantage of defending the communication with Zeemans-batterie, the gorge of which it might batter, as well as the Torabaya battery, and consequently not only prevent an enemy from intrenching himself in these two works, but likewise defend the Caligawa river, and co-operate in supporting a retreat, which might be effected along the right bank of the river Torabaya.

The Zeemans-batterie, and battery of Torabaya, situated, one on the left, the other on the right bank of the river Caligawa, near its mouth, are sufficient to defend the approach to it. The Torabaya battery is an old one rebuilt, with a demi-batterie added, to prolong its right flank, so as to flank it, and cover the communication from Zeemans-batterie to Goede-Thuwt, the coast affording a space for landing of about two

hundred and forty feet. As an enemy, wishing to attack Samarang, might attempt to force the passage of the mouth of the river Caligawa, possess himself of its defence, and establish himself there, to protect the disembarkation of his troops on the shore of the right bank, it is essential that there should be, at least, one battery, in the creek, formed by the junction of the Torabaya and Caligawa rivers. A small work in this place would defend the communication of the river Caligawa, impede an enemy's establishment in the two works situate at its mouth, and moreover drive him out of it when he was there.

The centre work, and two circular redoubts, have not the necessary relief. In the first place, they are on marshy ground, which daily gives way; in the next place, they ought to command the coast, which they are much too low to do.

Notwithstanding these different works, Samarang is far from being in a respectable state of defence. It has but six hundred troops, of which one hundred and fifty, including the officers of the old Wurtemberg regiment, and forty national grenadiers, are European. The artillery is only served by Madurans and Javans, on whose steadiness the governor himself says he could not place much reliance if he were attacked. He was even convinced, that if fire or war transports or armed boats were to appear

opposite the mouth of the two rivers, the gunners would abandon the works, and consequently leave the enemy at liberty to take possession of them, and penetrate into the country. Independently of this inconvenience, and supposing these artillerymen to be staunch, an entrance might still be effected by the rivers Tawang-Trassie and Clayrang, although they are small and shallow, and some large bamboos are planted in the mouth of the former, to prevent boats coming there, and one or two small guns at the mouth of the other; for all these obstacles, not being supported, would soon be removed.

A little more to the west of the mouth of the river Tawang-Trassie, the coast is healthy and ground firm, where troops may be landed without difficulty, and instantly strike into a large hollow way leading to the town by Caliebanter, a height which commands the neighbourhood; in the last war a fortification was there, in the middle of which runs the road, surrounded by mountains, woods, and inaccessible valleys, a league and a half from the town, which would be reached without any impediment.

The emperor of Solo is engaged to furnish the governor with ten thousand men, on his first requisition, in case of an attack; but the time it would take to collect this number of Malays, scattered throughout the country, and in their

families, to form them into corps, and organize them, although their chiefs and companies are already assigned to them, would afford the enemy an opportunity of doing great mischief, by possessing himself of the town, and small forts which defend the communications with the interior, and by increasing the fortifications, to maintain himself there, until the Company could ratify its contracts with the princes, or enter into fresh engagements with them by treaties of alliance.

To guard against such an event, there ought to be,

1st, Instead of the centre work, which is inadequate to its object, a capacious fort of masonry, which, supporting the advanced works, would defend and cover the town.

2d, An increase of the garrison by a company of artillery, and a complete battalion of infantry, all Europeans: these forces, added to those already there, and to which the natives would more willingly unite, would do away every apprehension for the safety of the establishment.

A fort has been ordered to be built on the road which connects the empire of Solo with that of the sultan of Joucki, from fear of an approaching rupture between those princes, naturally hostile to each other; and which will probably be so contrived as to check whichever of the two may appear adverse to the Company.

The government of Java is the most lucrative, as the highest office, in India, next to that of the governor-general. M. Engelhart's annual income is said to be two hundred and fifty thousand piastres; and, at his house, Asiatic pageantry is seen in all its splendour. His situation, changed every four years, is reserved for the counsellors of India, who are not rich or have lost their property, the high regency being convinced that, before the expiration of their time, they will have re-established their fortunes.

Tagal is a small establishment, where is a resident, who carries into effect the engagements of the prince, by receiving, and depositing in the Company's warehouses, the productions of the country. It is not a military post. The village is large, and divided between the natives and Chinese; it is built at the bottom of a mountain, on which is a volcano, always burning. The mount is a remarkable object from the sea, for it appears to have, at the top, a very high tower, somewhat inclining, from the effect of the eruption.

The irregular positions of all the out-offices of the principal houses at Tchenbon, and of which some are at the side and others in the middle of a very extensive garden full of trees, basins, and running streams, make the situation truly pic-

turesque from the various scenery round about it. The resident, who has for many years inhabited this delightful retreat, has made it a most enviable place. He has a good music-master, who has formed a band of fifteen of his slaves. In his garden, a short way from the house, he has built a bamboo orchestra : in one part of the garden is a large park of antelopes, male and female, and twenty sheds where he rears deer ; also a dozen large China vases sunk into the ground for an immense quantity of gold and silver fish.

Tcheribon is a small town, or rather a large village, the capital of the kingdom of that name, divided between two princes of the same family, each of whom has the title of sultan, and reside in it. From external appearance, their palaces affect little of Asiatic show, being built only of planks and bamboo.

This place, one hundred and fifty miles east of Batavia, has only an open road, sheltered to the west by a large bank. It has four and a half and five fathoms water two leagues from shore, the distance at which ships are obliged to moor. Smaller vessels run along the bank to within three quarters of a league from land. As the river, near Tcheribon, divides into two branches, which fall into the sea a short distance

from each other, the country ships, which draw but four to six feet water, are obliged, in coming in and going out of the principal branch, to wait for high tides on account of a small bank at its mouth, with only two and a half feet water when the tide is out. This river is always full of the vessels of Java and of the surrounding islands.

On the right bank of the river, and on the sea-side, is a small brick fort, surrounded by a fosse, over which is a bridge with a redoubt.

The fort is of little consequence; its embrasure-parapet is but eighteen inches thick. It is defended by four bad small guns, which serve rather to secure the Dutch flag and answer the salutes of the ships which pass or come in, than as a defence against an enemy, who might choose to take possession of it and establish himself there.

The mole is in a very bad state; on the left bank it is entirely down, and has in a great measure disappeared.

On the right bank it is still in being, but the piles are rotten, broken, or forced out. It was in contemplation to rebuild it, with a battery at the end, as well as two others on each of the banks, as a defence against the pirates who continually infest the vicinity, and could easily at-

task so weak and unprotected a place, and pillage and lay it under contribution.

The whole garrison is composed only of fifteen Madurans, armed with bad firelocks, and commanded by a sergeant and two European corporals.

This kingdom produces the best and finest coffee of all Java ; the grain is sound and small : it is also famous for horses ; they are small, and well-made, but vicious.

The elder of the sultans has a park of spotted deer, like antelopes *, which are taken in the adjacent forests.

In the woods and mountains of this kingdom it is that the rhinoceros is most commonly met with.

The air of Tcheribon is generally salubrious ; notwithstanding, leprosy is a prevalent disease, also disorders in the eyes, which are sometimes dangerous from April to December.

In this town are only the resident, secretary, book-keeper, surgeon-major in the pay of the Company, and three subalterns, who are Europeans ; the rest are natives, who make up two thirds of the population, and Chinese, who have a considerable campong, and are employed in

* This species is the axis, cervus axis. — Sennini.

retail trade and agriculture. The establishment may bring in sixty thousand piastres a year; it is independent of the government of Java, and the resident corresponds directly with the high regency.

FINIS.

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